

The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, DECEMBER 25, 1873.

The Week.

CONGRESS has adjourned for the holidays without doing anything of importance. The dispute between Mr. Richardson and the Ways and Means Committee has ended for the time being in a compromise by which no increased taxation is to be tried until it is seen how the experiment of cutting down the estimates will work. It is now said that some \$20,000,000 can be saved by this means alone. The salary-grab debate has also temporarily ended in a vote for the passage of a new grab act, which enables the members to retain all the increased pay they have drawn since March 4, gives them \$500 a year in excess of the old salary, and adds to it an allowance for mileage and stationery and actual travelling expenses, retaining also all the increased salaries of the non-Congressional officials. It having been discovered that Mr. Hale of New York had acted as Government counsel before the British-American Claims Commission, and Mr. Hale having offended his colleagues by a severe denunciation of the grab, Mr. Wilson of Indiana introduced an amendment providing that any member of Congress who had received counsel-fees from the Government while acting as member of Congress should have his fees deducted from his future salary. This was too much for the endurance of Mr. Hale, who subsequently rose to a personal explanation, and accused General Butler of having concocted the amendment, and having got Mr. Wilson to introduce it by "reaching his arm around Mr. Eldridge" of Wisconsin. He then proceeded to compare Mr. Wilson to a "dirty cur"; on which Mr. Wilson replied that he (Mr. Hale) was another; and Mr. Butler, who had meantime got a copy of Mr. Hale's accounts from the Treasury Department, exhibited them to the House, and compared the "grabbers" to the woman taken in adultery, and Mr. Hale and his kind to her accusers.

The bill for the repeal of the Bankruptcy Act is now in the Senate, having passed the House by a vote of 224 to 40, under the operation of the previous question. It is a remarkable fact that this bill, which will change the relations of creditors and debtors throughout a commercial country of 40,000,000 population, has passed the House with hardly a word of debate except on one point, and that this one should have been on the question whether the bill, as reported by the committee, had not been prepared by the principal bankrupt in the country for his private benefit. The bill as reported contained the very curious clause that, as to pending cases, a majority of the creditors in value should have full power to dispose of the estate in any way they should see fit, and that they might, if they saw fit, put it back "in the banks of the debtor." Mr. Wilson of Indiana, on the introduction of this bill, he being himself a member of the committee which introduced it, told the House that these clauses as to pending cases were drawn by an attorney of Jay Cooke & Co. to enable them to get control of their assets and go on with their speculations, and the bill ought to be called "a measure to embarrass justice." The House voted at once against the clauses, and certainly did quite right in voting against them; but if the debate on this bill is to be a sample of the discussion which is to take place in the Senate, we might almost as well have no debating at all. The Bankruptcy Act is needed, and it ought to be amended, not repealed. A petition from New York merchants has been sent to the Senate, complaining of the haste of the House in repealing the act, and opposing repeal. One of the strong arguments against the act all along has been, that the "moneyed men of New York" were in favor of total repeal, but the moneyed men themselves say that their opinion has not even been asked.

The nomination of Attorney-General Williams has not yet been acted upon by the Senate, and, in the meanwhile, one of the charges or rumors has taken pretty definite shape. It seems that the firm of Jackson & Polhemus, of this city, were indicted for receiving money from a disbursing officer knowing it to be the money of the Government. They had offered \$200,000 in settlement, which was declined, and criminal proceedings were instituted. These proceedings mysteriously ceased, and it has been publicly charged that \$100,000 was paid for their discontinuance, \$60,000 of which went to "a member of the Attorney-General's family." The Attorney-General has given an "explanation" of the affair which the Judiciary Committee of the Senate, it is said, have deemed to be "satisfactory." The satisfactory explanation is this: The defendants demurred or moved to quash the indictment, upon the ground that the statute under which it was found had been repealed. Thereupon the District-Attorney, with the approval of the Attorney-General, proposed to drop the criminal proceedings in as private a way as possible, so that he might hold the repealed statute *in terrorem* over the heads of other guilty parties, and, for aught we know, get a conviction or two where the prisoners were not so fortunate in their counsel as Messrs. Jackson & Polhemus. Whether this explanation raises the character of the Attorney-General in the opinion of the Senate, we are not informed; but whether the trick of pretending to indict people under a statute which has ceased to exist savors most of judicial dignity and integrity or of the sharp practice of a Tombs lawyer, is a question upon which two respectable men will not be apt to divide.

Judging from the tenor of the debates which have taken place thus far, both in the House and Senate, on the currency question, we are about to witness the same mode of opposition to the resumption of specie payments with which we were made so familiar during the debates on civil-service reform. That is, nearly all those who are opposed to expansion, and believe that greenbacks ought to be made redeemable in gold, are nevertheless always opposed to any "particular measure" designed to bring about that result. Contraction, they say, would ruin us, and inflation would ruin us. We cannot redeem unless we have gold enough in the Treasury to do so with safety. Being asked when they think there will be gold enough in the Treasury to resume, they say that it will be when "the balance of trade" is in our favor. Being informed that "the balance of trade" is now in our favor, they say that we are suffering from a terrible panic, which would make any further lowering of prices dangerous. When, on the other hand, they were asked to resume before the panic, they said either that "the balance of trade" was against us, or that the country was so prosperous that it would be folly to make any change. In short, there appears to be no way of driving them into a corner. Mr. Boutwell is firmly opposed to any "particular measure." Since the failure of his plan of making all things right by buying up bonds before they were due, he has apparently lost faith in human devices. Mr. Morton says he is also opposed to "any particular measure." He thinks we ought to keep "in view a return to specie payments," but evidently thinks it ought to be a far-distant view. He says he "once had a sort of fanaticism about specie payments himself, but experience and lapse of time cured him." Was this interesting period in his career before or after his proposal to pay off the public creditors in depreciated paper? He was not cured of that by either "time or experience," but by the very vulgar discovery that his was not the way the cat was jumping, so he wheeled right about. It will not do for him now to try to pass himself off on us as a wise old financier who has seen the vanity of gold and silver, as well as of promissory notes, and smiles at our childish eagerness for them.

PAGES FOLLOWING ARE

RE MISNUMBERED

There is no question that the scandalous appointments made of late years to the Federal bench did a good deal to defeat the attempt to get rid of an elective judiciary in this State. One of the worst of the appointees, that of Underwood in Virginia, made by Mr. Lincoln, has been removed by death. No more need be said about him. Another, and a still worse one, was Richard Busteed, to the District Court in Alabama. Busteed, who was familiarly known as "Dick," and "glorious Dick," was, at the outbreak of the war, one of the roughs of the New York bar—a man without learning or character, an active Tammany politician, and a noted brawler in court. He turned Republican in 1861, and was promptly made a Brigadier-General. As a strategist he proved a total failure, as he was unable to ride on horseback, and, as it would have been ridiculous to go into battle in a buggy, he expressed a desire for translation to the judicial bench, which was also promptly complied with, and he was sent down to Alabama as soon as the army opened the way for him. Since then he has been a standing nuisance and disgrace. The unfortunate people of the State have several times tried to have him impeached, but as "Dick" was loyal, while they were not, they failed, until he quarrelled with Spencer, one of the present senators. Of late he has had the good sense to keep his court closed and spend his time at the North, where on one occasion he went out fishing with one of the parties to a suit pending before him, and granted him an order which enabled him to get the money in dispute out of the country, and thus deprive the plaintiff of all remedy. A committee of the House has at last been appointed to investigate his doings, and his impeachment will doubtless follow.

A similar step has been taken with regard to Judge Durell of Louisiana, who recently "enjoined" the State government and set up one of his own. He is a terrible drunkard, and is accused of keeping "a Gratz," with whom he divides bankrupt estates. With Underwood dead, and Busteed, Delahay, Durell, and Sherman cleared off, much will have been done for the purification of the Federal bench, but our friends in other States will see how much the spectacle offered by these worthies has told against all efforts for a better system here. We agree with the *World*, that if the vote were now to be taken over again, the majority against appointment would be greater than it was, owing to the scandal of the process through which Mr. Williams's nomination is passing. The shame and absurdity of an official enquiry into the private character of a candidate for the Chief-Justiceship of the Supreme Court of the United States, is something on which we need not dwell. It is like the investigation of charges of unchastity and embezzlement against a bishop, as a preliminary to his consecration.

The new Pennsylvania Constitution has been adopted by an overwhelming popular vote, the Ring being defeated even in Philadelphia. The struggle between the respectable classes and the officials who had got control of the city was not so desperate a contest by any means as that between the same classes in New York and Tweed; but there were a good many points of resemblance. Among these was the part taken by some of the best-known lawyers in the State in the effort to secure the adoption of the Constitution. Even Chief-Justice Agnew, of the same Court which had just declared the special-election ordinance of the Convention void, expressed himself in favor of the adoption of the instrument; and many prominent lawyers besides took part in the agitation who ordinarily have been in the habit of looking upon politics with indifference or contempt. The joy over the result is universal, we may almost say, throughout the country, for the condition of Pennsylvania politics has been, for the past ten years, pretty well understood outside the State; the relation of wealthy and well-to-do quiet Philadelphians to the politicians of their own city has been for a long time something like that of a subject to a dominant race. An idea of what the state of affairs has been in the past may be inferred from the fact, which does not seem to

be as generally known as it ought to be, that four or five years since a commission was appointed to revise the laws of Pennsylvania, and the character of the appointees was such that it was discovered, when they had finished their work, that they had turned several laws not merely into confusion, but into unintelligible gibberish.

The surrender of the *Virginus* to the United States officers took place quietly on Tuesday week at Bahia Honda. She was delivered by a Spanish sloop-of-war to the United States despatch-boat without fuss or ceremony, and in the silence and almost solitude of an unfrequented bay. The surviving prisoners have since been surrendered also. The Spanish Government has now submitted evidence on which Attorney-General Williams has advised the State Department that the papers of the *Virginus* were obtained fraudulently, and by perjury on the part of Mr. Patterson—the Cuban Junta in this city, or certain members of it, being the owners of the ship either wholly or in part—and that she was therefore not entitled to the American flag, which accordingly will not be saluted on Christmas Day. This accounts for the strange indifference of Mr. Patterson to the fate of his ship, and also for his reluctance to "come to the front." It is proper to observe that, no matter who owned this ship, it has been notorious for a year past that she was engaged in filibustering business, that there was little concealment about her errand when she last left an American port, that she has now cost the country \$5,000,000, or almost one-third of the sum received from the British Government in payment of the damages caused by the Confederate cruisers, and that she has been very near causing a war which would have cost us some hundreds of millions of dollars. The inference is, we think, obvious.

A correspondent writes us from New Orleans that the present city government, which is composed of respectable Democrats, has made itself intensely unpopular by enforcing the collection of taxes to meet the interest on the city debt of \$20,000,000. The State debt being \$22,000,000 more, and a large part of it being fraudulent, there is a strong feeling in favor of suspension of payment of interest on both. The carpet-baggers and bond-holders, however, do not take this simple view of the matter, and they are preparing a funding bill to be presented to the next legislature in January. This bill is to provide for the funding of all old bonds (now worth 41) into a new consolidated bond—bearing about the same interest as the old issue—at the rate of two dollars in new bonds for three dollars in old ones. This would bring the total State debt down to about fifteen millions, and it is proposed then to adopt an amendment to the Constitution of the State declaring this fifteen millions to be inviolable, and prohibiting for ever the contraction of any additional debts. The State government could probably manage to pay the interest on these new bonds, and would then leave the old bondholders who might refuse to "fund" out in the cold, with unpaid coupons accumulating on their hands. It is said that this is the only alternative of repudiation or, what is as bad for the bondholder, a suspension of the payment of interest for an indefinite period.

The farmers during the past week have given little signs of activity, except in a meeting of the State Farmers' Association in Illinois. This is a political body, as our readers will remember, while the Grange, whose proceedings we noticed last week, is non-political. There is, however, this tie between them, that the members are the same, or nearly the same. In the one, they act in their capacity of agriculturists; in the other, in that of American citizens. It is a noticeable thing that while the farmers of Illinois, in their agricultural capacity, demanded Government aid last week, they have this week, in their capacity of American citizens, denounced Government aid, and declared that the Cheap Transportation question is a matter which belongs inalienably to the separate States, and that the United States have nothing

to do with it. The meaning of this strange state of affairs we take to be this. Originally—that is, three or four years ago—when nobody heard anything about them, the Granges were really non-political, and they now, something like Eastern trades-unions, have strictly class-interests at heart; they have, however, been in a measure “captured” by the politicians of their own body, who have got them to organize Farmers’ Associations for political purposes. The politicians like Flagg and Smith having discovered that Congress will not do much this winter for cheap transportation, naturally fall back for support on the local *pro-rata* laws, while the poor farmers themselves, in the Grange, go on insisting that in the last resort they will have a Government freight-railroad. In Kansas, the farmers’ movement has developed, as we said it would last summer, into a quarrel between the railroads and settlers over the title to land, and the settlers are confident of sending a senator to Washington to urge their claims. They want the United States to bring a suit-at-law—we presume like the *Crédit-Mobilier* suit lately brought—for their benefit.

Probably nothing did more to detract from the pleasure caused by the conviction of Tweed than the reflection that his three confederates, Connolly, Sweeny, and Hall, had escaped justice. Connolly and Sweeny judiciously withdrew to Europe when the storm first began, and are there living in comfort, among the despots of that continent, on the proceeds of their plunder. Hall, the Mayor, who took his share of booty mainly in law business for his firm, and thought that by handing the work of “auditing” over to Tweed he should escape his share of the responsibility, stayed at his post, however, and has stood two trials under the old jury law, the jury disagreeing in each case. Gathering courage as time rolled on, he actually appeared as a lecturer on “Marriage and Divorce,” and tried to diffuse the theory that he was a simple-minded man with “no head for details,” who had been deceived by Tweed and Connolly—he who had been a Tammany District-Attorney for many years, and used to wear a green coat and necktie on Patrick’s Day. When it was reported that no further attempt would be made to bring him to justice, most people felt that the punishment of the Ring frauds was very far from complete, and that the spectacle of Hall’s liberty would be a heavy blow to the cause of reform. We are glad to say that wiser counsels have prevailed, and at this writing he has just been arraigned again, and it is to be hoped will now, under the new jury law, follow his old Boss to Blackwell’s Island. The striped flannel jacket will be a highly appropriate substitute for the green coat, and the love of Ireland be very fitly succeeded by the cravings of low diet.

The statement of Captain Surmont as to the cause of the disaster to the *Ville du Havre* has reached this country, and also the evidence of one of the crew who was one of the lookout at the moment of its occurrence. Captain Surmont has little to say that is new. He had, however, just waked up, and stepped out on deck the moment before the collision, but too late to avert it. It may serve as a caution against hasty judgment to say that the accusation brought against him by “an old shipmaster” in the *Boston Advertiser*, the other day, of bad seamanship in going to bed without leaving direction that he should be called in case a sail came in sight, appears to be disposed of by his statement that he left written orders every night, and on this night in particular, that the officer on duty “should inform him of the slightest occurrence.” On the other hand, the evidence of Captain Roberts of the *Loch Earn* has come to hand, and is strong and positive, that the collision was due to an attempt on the part of the *Ville du Havre* to cross his bows at the last moment. It will be remembered that, under the rule of the sea, all that Captain Roberts has to show is that his lights were in order, and that he held steadily on his course.

The news from San Domingo throws some curious light on the value of the report made by the Commission sent down three years ago by the President to enquire into the condition of San Domingo,

and also on the danger of fancying that one understands tropical politics. The report represented Baez as commanding the full confidence of the people, and the people as being eager for annexation to the United States. A revolution has just occurred in the Republic, however, by which Baez has been driven out of power, and the insurgents have drawn up an indictment against him which, if true, shows him to be a dreadfully bad man, and, even if not true, shows that, so far from being authorized to sell “the people” to the United States, he did not even enjoy their confidence. But what about the “*plébiscite*” in favor of annexation which was taken in 1870?—the reader will say. Well, we don’t know what to say about it. We have no explanation to offer of the phenomena of tropical politics beyond this, that we have little doubt there are few citizens of the tropical republics to whom eating a mango and voting the transfer of their country to a foreign power, are not acts of about equal solemnity.

The Provisional Government which has been established at San Domingo has issued a proclamation accusing Baez of violating the constitution in all its points, of cruelty to political prisoners, of malversation of the public funds, of tyrannical conduct towards the clergy, of unlawful interference with the liberty of the press, of unconstitutionally offering the Republic for sale in the American market for \$1,000,000, of unlawful exactions, of the violation of private correspondence in the post-office, of prohibiting public meetings, of corrupt rearrangement of the electoral college so as to secure his own re-election, of disregarding the provisions of the constitution regarding popular education, and of arbitrary interference with trade and commerce. General Gonzales is the head of the new Government, or “Supreme Chief of the Revolution,” as he is called, and he has put in a new ministry. The new régime is said not to be hostile to the Samana Bay Company.

The Pope has issued a new Encyclical Letter, in which he bewails the suppression of the convents in Rome and of the Roman University; denounces the oath imposed by the Canton of Geneva on parish priests and their assistants; bewails the dreadful state of things in the diocese of Basle; thinks that it would be just as fair to blame the martyrs of the early church for shedding their blood for the faith of Christ and for the liberty of the church as to blame the German clergy for not obeying the recent ecclesiastical legislation of Prussia; is sorrowful over the accusations brought by the Emperor of Germany in his recent letter against his Catholic subjects, whom he (the Pope) highly lauds; considers the request that he should advise submission to this legislation as equivalent to a request that he should lend his help “in scattering the flock of Christ”; denounces the patronage of the Old-Catholics by the German governments; denounces the Old-Catholic “pseudo-bishop” Reinkens as a “notorious apostate,” and “the impudence” of getting him consecrated by the Utrecht Jansenists, and says he is no bishop at all, and solemnly excommunicates him, and all who have had hand, act, or part in his consecration. Turning his attention to America, His Holiness finds the state of things in that quarter of the world equally deplorable, where a warfare of a most desperate character is, it appears, waged against the church by Freemasons and other sects, who jointly compose an organization called “the synagogue of Satan.” As a remedy for all these evils, he calls on the clergy to be constant in prayer, so as to appease the anger of heaven. He is evidently of opinion that the Freemasons, and the Methodists, Baptists, and other Protestant denominations, are birds of a feather, and equally dangerous to faith and morals. The most curious thing about these Encyclical Letters is, however, their continued despondency. Year after year they depict a state of things in which Satan is steadily gaining on the church, and in which the ecclesiastical opposition to him seems to come to nothing. For instance, it is commonly supposed by Protestants that the Catholic lookout in this country is a cheerful one, but at Rome there is as much gloom apparently about us as about any other nation. If there is any truth in the Pope’s view, things cannot go on much longer as they are.

THE MULTITUDE OF FINANCIERS.

WE regret to say that we do not find in any quarter much satisfaction with the doings thus far of the present Congress. The newspapers have already begun to teem with denunciations of it, and even the warmest Republican organs openly warn the members that they need not hope to sit in another Congress, and wish that they had never met. The causes of this dissatisfaction lie on the surface, and Congress is not altogether to blame for them. Any Congress that could meet at this crisis would be sure to fall short of popular expectation, partly owing to the excited state of feeling produced by the panic, and partly owing to the disorganizing influence on public opinion exerted by the Administration. What we mean by the excited state of public feeling hardly needs explanation. The panic has, owing to the peculiar condition of the currency, plunged the country into more than ordinary perplexity. A panic is at any time bad enough, and the panic of 1857 went deeper and produced more widespread ruin than the present one, but the way to recovery was much plainer. It was what has been called a "credit panic"; that is, there had been over-producing, and over-trading, and over-issuing of paper, not in one field of industry only but in all. But when the crash came, there was nothing abnormal in the relations of the Government to the community. There was no commercial providence at the White House, and no "Uncle" or "Daddy" in the Treasury Department. The currency was still the currency of the civilized world, which the experience of many ages and many nations commended as the best possible. There was a great deal of "paper," both bank bills and merchants' bills, afloat, bearing promises to pay, which did not prove redeemable. But there was no haze over men's ideas on the subject of the circulating medium. The air was not filled with windy metaphysical essays on ideal "money." People knew what actual human money was, and cared nothing about "money" of the mind dreamed of by crack-brained speculators and "bankers" and communists and philanthropists. If a man owed a thousand dollars, and could not pay them, he went to his creditor frankly and said so; he did not write him long letters, trying to prove to him that bits of paper were just as good as gold. The consequence was that the community saw its way clearly out of the slough. Those who failed began anew; those who had lost heavily worked harder and lived more economically. Nobody looked or thought of looking to Washington for relief. Even if the Congress of that day had been as poorly fitted to deal with financial questions as the present one, it would have escaped with less censure or observation, owing to the much smaller number of demands on it.

When the present Congress met, people, in view of all that has happened, looked to it for immediate and serious attempts, whether right or wrong in their conception, to deal with the financial problem. They would have pardoned delay, if it was plainly made in the interest of enquiry and deliberation. But they are naturally a good deal irritated to find the whole subject thrust aside to make way for that eminently unsavory subject, the "salary-grab," and to find even this discussed in the language and spirit of loafers at a corner-grocery, and to find under cover of it the brawlers of the House making their way, at the very opening of the session, into the leadership of the majority. Moreover, the interest which has been manifested in the subject is plainly inspired rather by a slavish fear of popular indignation than a real spirit of reform, and the proposed legislation is apparently dictated by a desire to save as much money for the new Congress as may be consistent with expressing popular censure on the old one.

What we mean by the disorganizing influence exerted by the Administration on public opinion, is rather more difficult to set forth within the space at our disposal. Our foreign relations, the army and navy, are subjects in which the popular interest is very slight, on which Congress and the public are for the most part very ready to acknowledge their lack of information, and which they readily leave to the management of men of special training, so far as they care about their management at all. Indeed, it would be no exaggeration to say,

that as we have no army and no navy, it would be next to impossible to feel much interest in them. As regards foreign affairs, General Grant had the good fortune to provide himself with an adviser who was *prima facie* well qualified for the place, and who has justified his selection by marked success in two very important crises. But then a very much worse selection would probably have satisfied the public—for the problems of our foreign relations are usually very simple, and the advice of acknowledged specialists can always be obtained on them. Whenever the Department of State finds itself puzzled on a question of international usage, it can obtain opinions from at least a dozen jurists whose decisions everybody will be disposed to bow to.

As regards the Treasury Department, now so closely connected with the banking and currency of the whole country, the state of things is widely different. Money matters are matters in which everybody is intensely interested. Currency is something about which nearly everybody, certainly every business man, thinks he is well informed. Almost any dealer in money or large vendor of goods feels himself fully competent to draw up a scheme for the regulation of the circulating medium. The fallacy of this belief has been again and again demonstrated. The currency question, almost as much as the tariff question, is pre-eminently a question of remote results. The immediate results of this or that measure anybody has wit enough to see; to follow it out to its ultimate consequences requires not only the habit of analysis and the capacity for protracted reflection, but thorough familiarity with the experience of mankind in this particular field of activity. Consequently, whether a man is an authority on currency depends largely on his mental training and ability. He may have dealt in money all his life, and be a financial dunderhead; he may have no experience in business, and be a financier of the highest order. Some of the most stupendous financial nonsense on record has been talked by merchants and bankers; some of the highest financial wisdom produced by men who had never been inside a counting-house. It is, however, none the less true that the ideal financier is a man with a trained brain and practical business experience, and who has "no axes to grind." But no matter what kind of man you take, you cannot make a financier of him if he disregards financial history. Principles of human nature form two-thirds of every financial problem. An ideal system of finance cannot be constructed without at the same time constructing an ideal man. So that the first and great question of finance is, Supposing we do this or that, how will men behave under it? Now, you cannot find out how they will behave either by mathematics, or metaphysics, or mechanics, or even astrology. You can only find out by history, by looking into the records of human experience, in order to discover whether your plan, or anything like it, was ever tried, and if so, what happened.

In these days, when so many people are talking finance, and the late Secretary of the Treasury makes a boast of caring nothing about financial history, it is interesting and instructive to go back a few years and see how a really great man prepared himself to deal with such problems as are now once again before the country. Said Daniel Webster, in Faneuil Hall, in 1842:

"The subject of currency, gentlemen, has been the study of my life. Thirty years ago, a little before my entrance into the House of Representatives, the questions connected with a mixed currency, and restoring the proper relation of paper to specie, and the proper means of restricting an excessive issue of paper, came to be discussed by the most acute and well-disciplined understandings in England in Parliament. At that time, during the suspension of specie payments by the Bank, when paper was 15 per cent. below par, Mr. Vansittart presented his celebrated resolution, declaring that a bank-note was still worth the value expressed on its face; that the bank-note had not depreciated, but that the price of bullion had risen. Lord Liverpool and Lord Castlereagh espoused this view, opposed, as we know, by the close reasoning of Huskisson, the powerful logic of Horner, and the practical sagacity and common-sense of Alexander Baring, now Lord Ashburton. The study of these debates made me a bullionist. They convinced me that paper could not circulate safely in any country any longer than it was immediately redeemable at the place of its issue. Coming into Congress the very next year, or the next but one after, and finding the finances of the country in a most deplorable condition, I then and ever after devoted myself, in preference to all other topics, to the consideration of questions

relating to them. I believe I have read everything of value that has been published on those questions on either side of the Atlantic. I have studied by close observation the laws of paper, as they have exhibited themselves in this and other countries, from 1811 down to the present time."

When we contrast this preparation, to which one of the most powerful minds of the present century thought it necessary to subject itself in order to discuss finance, with the way in which our financiers at the present day take the matter up, we must admit that we have gone down the hill very rapidly. We have, in fact, got in this matter, as in some others, to what is called a "democratic basis"—that is, one on which everybody thinks he knows as much as anybody else. Instead of having one or two or a dozen men specially devoted to this question, and peculiarly competent to deal with it, charged with the preparation and carriage of measures designed to restore order to the national finances, we have a whole army of persons of all varieties of character and attainment busily engaged in discharging the duties of a Minister of Finance, the most modest and reticent of the lot being the Secretary of the Treasury. All presidents of national banks, all managers of savings-banks, all railroad presidents, all "bankers and brokers," all wholesale dry-goods men, all bond-peddlers, all members of Congress, are busily engaged in regulating the currency, and the President sets them the example of knowing all about it the minute he casts his eye on it. Neither Turgot, nor Huskisson, nor Horner, nor Hamilton, nor Webster, nor Gladstone ever wrote or spoke on any knotty point of national economy with half the assurance of the President's late remarkable letter on "silver resumption."

Now, what we complain of is that the Administration, instead of trying to educe order from this chaos by recognizing and promoting in its appointments the claims of study and experience, has used its influence to spread and perpetuate the idea that finance is one of those open questions which all men may approach with equal confidence, and with which any man can be made competent to deal by being clothed with office and a title. The first and most palpable result of this policy has been, of course, the installation of Messrs. Boutwell and Richardson in the Treasury; but another and not less unfortunate one has been the maintenance and perpetuation of the practice, begun in Congress soon after the war, of introducing financial bills as a mere expression of individual opinion, or in order to "show where the author stands." In a proper state of opinion, this would be too ridiculous and mischievous to last; but it is difficult to persuade any member of Congress that he does not know as much about currency as General Grant or Mr. Richardson. The consequence is that the attention of Congress and the country is confused by a multiplicity of schemes; the voice of thoughtful and skillful members is drowned in the noise made by the ignorant and reckless; and all consideration of any plan in particular, either in or out of doors, is rendered impossible. It is quite safe to say that until the country is "called to order" by some authority whom it respects, and in whose conclusions it sees reason to trust, a measure so serious, so full of inconvenience, whether real or fancied, to individuals, as a return to specie payments, will not be carried. We will take leave to add, too, that if the age of "leaders" be gone, more attention must be paid to elementary instruction in political economy in the public schools, if we are to escape great disasters hereafter. It is not simply a disgrace, but is likely to prove a serious danger to the nation, that children should be sent out into the world, in a complex commercial society like ours, in the condition of Mr. Pratt of Indiana, who thinks that by increasing the volume of the currency he can lower the rate of interest. In the presence of such a phenomenon as this, it is not wonderful that much of the current financial talk carries us back to the days when Jews were massacred for "carrying gold out of the kingdom."

THE CHIEF-JUSTICE OF THE UNITED STATES.

IT does not seem to be generally remembered that there was once a nomination for Chief-Justice of the United States rejected by the Senate; nor that the person so rejected was John Rutledge of

South Carolina, a man as well esteemed there as Jefferson was in Virginia or Hamilton in New York; nor that the President who made the rejected nomination was Washington. On the 1st of July, 1795, the President wrote to Governor Rutledge, stating that he had on the previous day received the resignation of Chief-Justice Jay, and that Governor Rutledge's appointment would be immediately made. About the time that this reached Rutledge in Charleston, he also received news of Jay's treaty with Great Britain. Notwithstanding his judicial appointment, of which he was then aware, he attended a public meeting called for the purpose of denouncing the treaty, and not only joined in the denunciations, but cast many reproaches and sneers at the negotiator whom he had then in fact succeeded as Chief-Justice. Shortly after this he left Charleston for Philadelphia, and presided at the August term of the Supreme Court, and delivered at least one opinion. His conduct at Charleston was thought improper and indecorous, but the irritability which it caused seems to have subsided before Congress met. By that time, however, there were suspicions as to the mental condition of the Chief-Justice. In this day, the Washington correspondents would refer to them as rumors, which we should be informed a committee of the Senate had investigated in secret session and found groundless. At that day, the office was deemed of too much importance to be confided to any man to whom suspicions of any kind attached, however great his abilities and however eminent his patriotic services. Accordingly, on the 15th of December, 1795, the nomination of John Rutledge was rejected. There is, therefore, a precedent of the strongest kind, considering the personal eminence of both Washington and Rutledge, to sustain the Senate in exercising over every judicial appointment its right of scrutiny and its power of rejection.

It is also a matter of common belief that no associate Justice of the Supreme Court has ever been promoted to be Chief-Justice. This also is an error. During the absence of Jay abroad on his mission to negotiate a treaty, Mr. Justice Cushing had presided in his stead. After the rejection of Rutledge he was nominated to the Chief-Justiceship and unanimously confirmed. It is related that on the day when this occurred there was a large dinner-party at the President's, and the new Chief-Justice was one of the guests, though ignorant of his appointment. On entering the room Washington, from the head of the table, directing his look to him, said, in an emphatic tone, "The Chief-Justice of the United States will please take his seat on my right;" and that the Judge was much affected at the announcement. His commission as Chief-Justice was made out and sent to him. He held it for about a week, and then determined, on the ground of ill health, to resign.

Considering the greatness of the office, there is, indeed, an anomaly about its early history in the frequency with which it became vacant. It was regarded as the second important office under the Government; Congress had fixed the compensation at about four times as much as the Congressional pay, equivalent in these days, judging by that standard, to \$30,000 per annum; the tenure of office was for life; Jay, when offered by Washington any position which he might select under the Government, had chosen that of Chief-Justice; and yet in the first twelve years of the Government it was five times vacant and was marked by three resignations and one declination. The causes, however, do not indicate that the office was undervalued. Jay resigned because he believed that the people of New York were then peculiarly entitled to his services as Governor, and that patriotic disinterestedness required that he should give up a greater office for a lesser one. He had previously, in 1785, declined to be Governor of New York, while holding the inferior office of Secretary of Foreign Affairs under the Confederation, because he then thought no such necessity existed. Later, in 1801, when the reappointment of Chief-Justice was tendered to him, he declined because he had determined to retire from public life. Ellsworth, like Jay, was sent to negotiate a treaty while upon the bench, and like Cushing resigned because of ill health.

The men who have been called to the office of Chief-Justice

have always been men whose personal character was above suspicion or reproach, and who could lay claim to eminence either as judges or statesmen. Jay had been Chief-Justice and Governor of New York, a member of the Government under the Confederation, and distinguished in the Colonial Congress. He was indeed much more prominent at that day than he appears to us now to have been. The dignity and rectitude and liberality of his personal character doubtless invited confidence and respect. As we have seen, Washington's confidence in him was so great that he not only appointed him Chief-Justice, but, taking him as the first of the great men of the day—before Jefferson and Hamilton—tendered him any place which he might prefer to serve in. Rutledge's services during the Revolution are a part of the history of the country. But of him we need hardly speak, as his appointment was rejected. Cushing had been a judge from a period anterior to the Revolution, Chief-Justice of Massachusetts, and presiding Justice of the Supreme Court of the United States. Ellsworth had been prominent among the framers of the Constitution, a judge in Connecticut, chairman of the Judiciary Committee of the Senate, and at the time of his appointment was spoken of by John Adams as "the firmest pillar of the whole Administration in the Senate." Of Marshall, the greatest of American judges, it is needless to speak. It is enough to say that these were the men that the office was deemed to require during the official days of Washington and Adams. Since those days, neither the dignity nor the importance of the office has declined, and its labors have been very greatly augmented.

But apart from all historic precedent, and the cherished examples of the "fathers," whose wisdom and rectitude are still guides which it is ordinarily safe to follow, this office of Chief-Justice of the United States is not one that the American people can easily suffer to fall into unworthy hands. If there be any characteristic of our Constitution which has been lauded and believed in at home, and studied and respected abroad, it is the lofty and independent plane upon which it has placed the judiciary of the United States. Unlike the chief officers of state, the judges hold office for life. Unlike other appointed officers, they are not removable at will. A tardy and uncertain proceeding, in the nature of a criminal conviction, can alone remove them from office, and as it was intended for offences little short of crimes and misdemeanors, it cannot be employed against ordinary unfitness, passable ignorance and narrow-mindedness, suspected partiality, and suspicious antecedents and associates. The office may fall immeasurably in public estimation and moral usefulness through the shortcomings of the incumbent, and yet the nation be without a remedy through his whole lifetime. Certainly there was never a people who so needed irreproachable character in their chief judicial officer, nor who could so justly demand of their appointing power a fearless and exacting scrutiny. The ordinary political crimes of giving us bad officials to waste our resources, or rob us of our money, are trivial compared to that of passing a suspected person up to the bench of our highest court.

But even at this point one should not stop to estimate the importance of the office. Besides this independence of the individual judge, there is also to be considered the singular independence and power within its own sphere of the judicial department of the Government. What other judicial system has the power to declare void the acts of the executive and the laws of the legislature? Standing as it does between the Government and the citizen, between the General Government and the States, and even between the several States in the character of a supreme arbiter for each, it participates in the most vital affairs of Government to an extent and in a manner which no other judicial system approaches. And as many of the questions with which it has to deal are of a gravity which far exceeds those which come before mere courts of law, so they are of a nature which cannot be determined by mere legal precedents. In other words, the bench of the Supreme Court requires a breadth of intellect and general culture and comprehensive learning much above the ability that will carry a mere lawyer over his routine with credit. If we have great men who are also able lawyers, the

Supreme Court is the department of the Government which peculiarly demands them.

The means appointed by the Constitution for the selection of the judiciary are in one sense peculiar. The executive and the legislature are chosen directly or indirectly by the people; but because the people might err in the choice, the duration of their offices is short. But inasmuch as the judiciary hold office for life, it was designed that there should be no mistakes in their selection. Especially should there be no mistake in the matter of personal character and integrity. Never was there a time when a people could better appreciate the difference between morally good and bad judges. In public estimation, the Chief-Justice of the United States must be above suspicion. It is not enough that senatorial committees, sitting with closed doors, declare charges unsustainable and rumors unfounded. Rumors and suspicions may be unfounded and unjust, but while we may all deplore the injustice, we must all insist that a place so exalted shall be filled by an untainted character. It is not enough that the man chosen to be Chief-Justice be really good; he must be so free from evil that all of his countrymen believe him to be irreproachable.

AGRIPPA D'AUBIGNÉ.

PARIS, December 4.

IT is not easy to form a complete collection of the original works of Agrippa d'Aubigné. The Catholic movement which followed the abjuration of Henri IV., and the gradual decay of the Protestant cause, consigned d'Aubigné almost to oblivion. He is not often mentioned in the historical works which were written after the Revocation of the Edict of Nantes. His wild and unruly spirit was little in accordance either with the serenity of the *grand siècle* or with the light graces of the eighteenth century. Our time has been more just to him, and the resurrection of d'Aubigné must be chiefly attributed to the intelligent praise of Sainte-Beuve. The eminent critic saw at once, when he took the pains to go over the folios of the author of the 'Histoire Universelle,' that d'Aubigné did not belong to the second class of respectable writers, who form the great army of letters; that he was a commanding genius, as a poet, as a historian, as a man. I was able to procure Sainte-Beuve's own copy of the first edition of the 'Histoire Universelle,' printed under the eyes of d'Aubigné at his chateau of Maille. The well-known signature of Sainte-Beuve is on the title-page, and I found paper marks between the leaves, which certainly were placed there by the hand of the great critic, as they all marked remarkable passages.

D'Aubigné had been educated somewhat like Stuart Mill; at the age of seven he translated the 'Crito' of Plato. But his classical education was interrupted somewhat by the civil wars. When he was eight years old, he followed his father to Paris on horseback, and, going through Amboise, he saw the heads of some Huguenots on spikes: "They have decapitated France, the murderers!" exclaimed his father, who put his hand on his head and said to him: "My child, you must not spare your own head, nor will I mine, to avenge these honorable chiefs; if you do, you will have my malediction." These details are found in d'Aubigné's own life, written by himself for his children. His other works, which are well known to all scholars, are the 'Tragic Poems,' the 'Adventures of the Baron de Feneste,' the 'Satires,' the 'Confession of Sancy.' It is not easy to translate the old-fashioned and quaint style of d'Aubigné. Let us choose, for instance, this passage, marked by Sainte-Beuve. Admiral Coligny is in bed with his wife; he is waked up by her sobs, and she addresses him thus:

"It is with great regret, sir, that I disturb your peace by my inquietude; but the members of Christ being torn as they are [it was at the beginning of the persecutions against the Protestants], and we belonging to his body, what part of it can remain insensible? You, sir, have not less feeling than I, but more force to conceal it. Here we are in a luxurious bed, while our brothers—the flesh of our flesh and the bone of our bone—are some in prison, some in the fields at the mercy of the dogs and vultures. This bed seems a grave to me, since they have no grave; these sheets tell me that they have no shrouds. I was recalling the prudent speeches by which you shut the mouths of your brothers; will you also tear their hearts, and have them remain without courage as well as without speech? I fear lest this prudence be that of the children of the century, and so much worldly wisdom not be wisdom in the eyes of God, who gave you the science of a great captain. Can you in conscience refuse to use it for His children? The sword of a knight which you wear, ought it to oppress the afflicted or to tear them from the claws of tyrants? . . . Sir, I have on my heart the blood of so many of ours; this blood and your wife scream before God and in this bed against you, and tell you that you will be the murderer of those whom you will not hinder from being murdered."

There is in this passage something quite Corneillian; you feel in every word

the energy of the sixteenth century. D'Aubigné's characteristic is, above all, energy; there is force, and almost brutality, in his poetry, and even in his wit. He will ever remain one of the most remarkable writers of that period when the French language was in process of formation, when it was more unruly, more individual. It was therefore a happy idea to begin, what had never been done before, a complete edition of his works. The first volume has only just appeared in that magnificent collection of the French classics which is edited by Alphonse Lemerre. To those who cannot procure the original editions, and even to the happy bibliophiles who have them, I cannot recommend enough the volumes already published of La Bruyère, of Rabelais, of Montaigne. D'Aubigné's works will form five volumes; the first contains a great quantity of matter entirely novel. It was known that many manuscripts of d'Aubigné were still unpublished. They were kept in Switzerland in the Tronchin Library. M. Merle D'Aubigné, the author of 'The History of the Reformation in Europe,' thought at one time of publishing all the writings of his ancestor; but his old age and the necessity of finishing his own work precluded him from entering into this new enterprise. M. Eugène Réaume has been admitted to the Tronchin Library with M. Caussade, and they have copied all that was worth copying in the enormous correspondence found at the Castle of Bessinges. They have also put under contribution the libraries of the Duc de la Trémoille, of the Duc de Noailles, who has all the relics of Madame de Maintenon (who was, as is well known, the grand-daughter of d'Aubigné). The unpublished works which they offer now to the literary world are: A book of military missives and speeches; memoirs on state matters; correspondence on personal affairs; familiar letters; letters on points of science and of theology; four treatises on political or religious subjects—1. Instructions and salutary advice to princes, republics, and peoples; 2. Treatise on civil wars; 3. On the mutual duties of kings and nations; 4. The Caduceum, or the angel of peace. There are, besides, an allegorical novel and unpublished poems. Most of the familiar letters have, alas! disappeared, and it seems that of all these manuscripts many had been condemned by d'Aubigné to destruction. "Ure, seca," were his own words to his executors in his will. They never obeyed him, and all the papers have been found in the greatest confusion. He never himself attached much importance to any of his works, except his great 'History,' which he proudly dedicated to posterity.

Here is an extract from one of the familiar letters, which will show the pervading spirit of the Huguenot gentry. The Duc d'Epemon had been much offended by an allusion to him made in the 'Tragiques':

"A gentleman said to me after dinner: 'We saw yesterday M. d'Epemon very angry against you, and saying before two hundred gentlemen that if he could not see you otherwise, he would invite you to see him in a field with one of the best swords of the world.' I shrugged my shoulders and smiled, but his companion having repeated the same thing, I felt obliged to add: 'I have been bred in too good a place not to know what the advantages are of dukes and peers; but if his Highness absolutely ordered me, and if you in his name asked me to go to that field, he would be promptly obeyed.' One of them answered: 'Sir, there are qualities of which he cannot divest himself, and, besides, he is surrounded by so many lords and gentlemen that he could only clear the field (*à surer le pré*) with difficulty.' I ended the conversation thus: 'Gentlemen, we do in France what we wish with our acquisitions. The Duke by birth is nothing above me, and many princes—witness the Duc de Guise—lay aside their dignities from excess of courage; and as for clearing the field, I can do that myself, even if the field is in his government.'"

This was strong language, but the man who never spared the truth to Henri IV. was not likely to tremble before the Duc d'Epemon.

In the series of letters united under the name of "Letters of State," we see d'Aubigné in correspondence with the Duc de Rohan, with the Duc de Bouillon, with the "most honored Lords of Berne," with the Venetian Ambassador, with the Prince de Condé. In the collection of the "Letters on Points of Science," we meet with many proofs of the terrible ignorance of the most cultivated men of the period of Henri IV. There is a long letter among others, addressed to M. de la Rivière, the first doctor of the king, on the question of sorcery, which is very extraordinary. "It would be," says d'Aubigné, "a great iniquity to believe that the Scriptures, in which there is nothing vain, had spoken in vain against sorcerers and enchanters; it would be a mortal and pernicious error." He then explains that the sorcerers ought to be brought under the jurisdiction of very high and learned courts. Among the stories he tells, and which give a vivid idea of those times, is this: After the last civil wars, says he, France was afflicted with a plague called "la masle beste." Two hundred thousand persons died of it; the wolves were entering the houses to devour the children. The populace believed in enchanted wolves, called *lous garous*. "It happened that near Chemillé there was found in a ditch a horrid man, with a furious look, bloody hands, and a bloody mouth. He had by him a little child, the entrails of which had been devoured. They asked him who had eaten the child; he said that

he had himself." In court, he confessed having eaten many other children, and finally it was proved that he had eaten none; that he had found a child dead, and had touched him; he was mad, that was all his crime. But if it had not been for the judge, who conducted the examination with great care, the unfortunate madman would probably have been condemned to some *exquisitum supplicium*. D'Aubigné cites the case of a girl who, after a sermon on sorcery, went to a judge and confessed herself a sorceress. The First President prepared himself for the trial by reading the 'Demonomania' of Bodin, and other books of this sort. D'Aubigné describes the girl as very handsome, with a candid expression, and an immovable countenance. They asked her, "In what state do you go, or do you think you go to the Sabbath, in body or in spirit?" "To the Great Sabbath, which is very distant, we only go in spirit; to the near ones in body." "You think so, but it might be all imagination?" "I will prove to you that it is not. Ten days ago we held a Sabbath in such a village, in such a one's barn; the Master ordered such and such and me to go and get the son of Jane in such a place, who had been buried on that day. He was brought on the table, and divided between twenty-four persons. I remember thirty places where the remains were taken." Commissioners were sent, and many small bones of a child were found in these places. This trial, says d'Aubigné, caused the execution of thirty-four persons; the girl witnessed them all, with a cord round her neck, much regretting not to die also, as she had, she said, been taken since the age of nine years to the Devil's Sabbath.

There are also curious letters upon philtres, upon all the superstitious of a very superstitious time. These scientific, or rather unscientific, letters seem to me perhaps the most curious part of the inedited portion of this first volume, which will soon be followed by the well-known 'History' and the other works of d'Aubigné, with such additions and changes as have been found necessary after the inspection of the numerous manuscripts of the Tronchin library.

Correspondence.

THE CHIEF-JUSTICESHIP.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Like your correspondent "T. H.," whose letter appears in the *Nation* of last week, I was much surprised at the apologetic tone assumed by you in speaking of the nomination to the Chief-Justiceship. By the members of the Bar of the Supreme Court, who are acquainted with Mr. Williams's capacity, his nomination is considered as simply disgraceful. With such men to choose from as Swayne and Miller upon the Supreme bench, Woodruff and Emmons upon the Circuit, and Curtis, Evarts, and Cushing at the bar, the appointment of Mr. Williams would be positively disheartening to those who are endeavoring to effect the abolition of the elective system in the States where it now obtains. It is all the more surprising, too, from the usually fortunate selections made by President Grant for judicial offices, and can only be justified upon the theory that those who are likely to know Mr. Williams best have totally misapprehended his fitness for the place.

S. T. W.

DETROIT, Dec. 15.

INFLATION NO CHILD'S PLAY.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: This is a true story. Once upon a time (after the passage of the Legal-tender Act), as I was walking in a friend's garden, I came upon a summer-house where two little children were playing at keeping shop. Their merchandise was of little intrinsic value, but their currency was still more worthless, for it consisted of pieces of old newspaper. Having some confidence in my own knowledge of finance, I said, with a smile, "Children, you cannot play that game long, for one of you has only to tear up a few more old newspapers and he can buy the other out in no time." "Oh!" said the children, both together, "we ain't so silly as you think; before we began to play we agreed just how much newspaper we would have." Now, those little children played that game out honestly, and they didn't water their currency a bit.

Will not the *Nation* review this story, and recommend it as good reading for members of Congress during the Christmas holidays? And oblige, yours respectfully,

X.

ENGLISH WATER-COLOR ART.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: A paper has been circulated through art-circles in this country containing a copious extract from the *Nation*, in which the use of gouache is spoken lightly of, and its use deprecated from its alleged want of permanency; and

as English water-colors have been publicly exhibited of late in New York, and a favorable reception accorded to them (as representing a school without a rival and enjoying an European reputation), may I be permitted to assist in removing the erroneous impression which exists in reference to the body-color element, and so endeavor to destroy the fulcrum by the aid of which you overturn those works which have been completed, and their salient points touched in, with this material?

You say: "A few magisterial touches of body-color, which, as we are taught, may turn black in the course of a few years." May I explain that the first use of white seventy or eighty years ago was neither more nor less than chalk, with sufficient admixture of gum to make it adhere? A few years later, preparations of lead succeeded, and the rash use of this material, which did turn black in the course of a few years, and brought very naturally opprobrium on the very name of body-color, is the obvious reason why it has earned an unfortunate reputation. Every chemist must condemn the use of this material with its leaden basis, and it is no longer manufactured. To this succeeded a preparation of oxide of zinc, which proved to be in all respects permanent; but from having a somewhat pasty texture, rising in unseemly ridges on each side of the brush mark, it soon ran its race, to be succeeded by sulphate of barytes, which gives the water-color artist all he can desire, working most agreeably, thoroughly opaque and unchangeable. It was first largely used by J. D. Harding, but not until its properties had been severely tested by Michael Faraday. Mr. Harding asked him, after his tests had been applied, "if it would last for ever"? Faraday said, "For ever is a long day, but you may rely on its lasting to all eternity, and a thousand years afterward." Will this satisfy those carpers who with long axes declare, as they may truly do of a consumptive patient, that "he is not long for this world"? I have many drawings by my colleagues of thirty to thirty-five years' standing where the white is as pure as the driven snow, and where not an approach to change is discernible; and we look upon a body-color work as specially protected from decay when the paper is covered with the panoply of body-color.

Having thus made known the opinion of our greatest analyst—an opinion unstained by the experience which revealing years brings to our aid—I fully concede all that you say in reference to the prodigal use of this material. Like all stimulants, it may be so often employed as to neutralize itself; and water-colors' *spécialité*—which is transparency and atmosphere—may be merged when too free use has been made of the bottle of white. Let our American friends persevere in the effort to exhibit the pure white "Whatman" paper—it is a laudable struggle, and one which will repay them in the end—and abstain as much as possible from the prodigal use of a material which, if indulged in, will fail to reach the power of oil, while the freshness of water-color work will be endangered. At the same time, if opaque color is wrong, so must be semi-opaque colors, and these include cobalt, vermilion, emerald green, and the various ochres. There can be no doubt but that the cautious and sparing use of this material in the foreground will greatly enhance the atmospheric tints obtainable only by the use of transparent colors.

I have the honor to be, sir, your obedient servant,

COLLINGWOOD SMITH,

Treasurer of the Society of Painters in Water-Colors.

WYNDHAM LODGE, BRIXTON HILL, LONDON, November 17, 1873.

Notes.

THE fifth 'Circular of Information' of the Bureau of Education is an account of college commencements during 1873 in the Western and Southern States—in fact, a continuation of Circular No. 3. The appendix sums up the degrees conferred by the institutions mentioned in both circulars, and the benefactions made to them. The A.B.s number 1,861, the M.D.s 503, the LL.B.s 504; while the bachelors of science make the respectable showing of 486. The total donations and legacies, absolute, pledged, and conditional, for the year 1872-73, are valued at £4,216,886. At the close of the present year the Bureau proposes to issue a title-page, general index, and introduction to its circulars, which have been paged accordingly.—St. George Mivart's newest work on 'Man and Apes: an Exposition of Structural Resemblances and Differences bearing upon Questions of Affinity and Origin,' will be republished here by the Appletons.—G. P. Putnam's Sons have reproduced for Mrs. Eliza Greatorix six pen-and-ink etchings made by her in Nuremberg, chiefly commemorative of Albert Dürer. The printing has been done by photolithography (the *Graphic* process) with a result probably not far short of the original rendering, but less effective, we should suppose, than copperplate impressions would have

been. The sketches, from well-chosen points of view, are interesting in themselves and gracefully executed.

—"Manning the Navy" was the subject of an address delivered by Capt. Stephen B. Luce, U.S.N., before the U. S. Naval Association at Annapolis, Nov. 13. Captain Luce has no fault to find with the "settled, well-established policy of our Government to maintain but a comparatively small standing army and a small navy, relying upon the patriotism of our people to swell either indefinitely, as may be needed." He complains, however, that while in the case of the army this policy has been supplemented by a special provision for reserves, no such provision has been made—or, rather, made to operate—for the navy. As a result, "our national ships are only partially manned by American seamen," and, indeed, "the greater part of the men who man our naval guns are foreigners." Secretary Welles stated in one of his reports during the rebellion, "while we were straining every nerve to get seamen, that we had in the navy 19,000 landmen." These facts are sufficiently discouraging, but they do not appeal to the popular imagination until such a crisis is upon us as that from which diplomacy has just rescued us. "To establish a school of seamen for the navy alone, however," says Captain Luce, "would be as unwise as illiberal and short-sighted. Any scheme for the benefit of our seamen must include all, both those of the national and those of the commercial marine." The revival at this time of our shipping interests naturally favors the introduction of a general system of nautical education, and, in fact, the State of New York has already provided, in a statute passed last year, for the establishment and maintenance of "a nautical school for the education and training of pupils in the science and practice of navigation." Captain Luce has accordingly prepared a bill for submission to the present Congress, based upon the experience of England and France, as described in an interesting manner in the body of his address. Since it would be "unadvisable to open nautical schools in the absence of a positive and active demand for the kind of education they are alone intended to supply," the bill seeks "to create that demand by establishing, by legislative enactment, a fixed standard of professional attainment on the part of the masters and mates of our merchant service, and by requiring our merchant-vessels to take, as a part of their crew, duly qualified sailor-boys in numbers proportioned to their tonnage." In answer to a question of Commander Breese, Captain Luce said: "The first thing for us to do is to get Congress to give us an allowance of at least one thousand boys over and above our present complement of seamen; the act, in granting them, to specify that they are to be trained for the purpose of being seamen and petty officers in the navy; and at least three vessels should be commissioned in our principal ports for the purpose of carrying out the provisions of the act." The act also "provides for the appointment of a registrar of seamen, to keep, in addition to other prescribed duties, an account of the seamen of the country, that we may have at all times some knowledge of the auxiliary sea-force on which the country may rely in the event of war."

—The necessity of adopting some such plan as this is so apparent that we shall only express the hope that Congress may give it the attention it deserves, and that without delay. It should be borne in mind, however, that the lack of seamen is not peculiar to this country, and the causes of this deficiency merit a careful examination. At the very time Captain Luce was preparing and delivering his address, the Nautical Association of Bremen were deploring the prevalence of the same evil in all the ports of Germany. It was stated at one of their meetings that the number of Bremen crews had increased in ten years by about 25 per cent., while the number of sailors had remained nearly constant (1,500 to 1,600), and there was a marked falling-off in sailor-boys. This was traced to several causes: the actual deficiency of men in Germany; the decline of fisheries; the inequality between seamen's wages and landmen's; the hardships of the sailor's condition. Unquestionably the last two are everywhere the most potent factors of the problem. The laborer and the mechanic have no need to envy the sailor his gains or his lot. They earn more with less risk, and they are better protected against the caprice and inhumanity of their employers. Captain Luce calls attention to the bad name acquired by the American merchant-service for sheer brutality in the treatment of the men before the mast; and he might have added that our navy has furnished examples of cruel and unnatural punishments equally disgraceful to the national character. Moreover, the introduction of steam has worked adversely to good seamanship, by offering better wages and better treatment, while exacting less skill in navigation from the common sailor. Yet it is perfectly true, as Captain Luce remarks, that "to command an ocean steamer properly, one must first be a sailor; and a sailor can be made only on board of a sailing-ship." We may note that the Bremen Association declined to pass a resolution in favor of compelling shipmasters to take

a certain number of boys (*Schiff-jungenzwang*), partly on the ground of its impracticability, owing to the want of boys.

—We have already made reference to an entertaining writer in the *Cornhill*, who has had for his theme the history of the French newspaper press from its origin to the present time. In his latest article he deals with contemporary journals and journalists, and, after a fashion to which he is no stranger, he begins with a small Gallico-philosophical excursus, in which he enquires into the reason why every newspaper press in the world does the French press the honor of paying it more attention than any other. This we suppose we may allow to pass for a fact. The fact being so, it is so for the same reason, he says, that each nation outside of France pays more attention to the French nation than to any other except itself; and this is a reason not hard to find. The Frenchman thinks he has found it when he says that it is because the French are the leaders of human thought in all its fields. But this, says our author, is a conclusion which has no great amount of truth in it. Frenchmen are great adapters and magnifiers of other men's ideas: that must be admitted; but it cannot be said of their genius that it is at all of the inventive kind. For instance, their communist right of local self-government, about which we have lately heard so much, has for centuries been an old story in Britain, and has long been exercised by Americans also; and the same may be said of "all that is practical in their political theories." But it is not only in political contrivances of a practical nature that the French are secondary; the same thing happens to them everywhere. Their famous schools of revolutionary philosophy, for example, were made up of nothing else than disciples of the rationalism of Hobbes and Locke; and of their celebrated Encyclopædists it may indeed be said, that as their writings were directed against Rome and the Jesuits rather than against fundamental dogmas, the authors of them may be described as mere continuers of the Reformation. Undoubtedly, it may be urged that France has at least immense military glory, and a moral influence extending far beyond the confines of her territory; "but these again are catch phrases, which do not bear a very close examination." As for the military glory of France, "before Napoleon, who was a Corsican, vanquished the armies of disunited and distracted Germany," French military annals offered a long series of such crushing defeats as Crécy, Poitiers, Agincourt, Pavia, Blenheim, Ramillies, Malplaquet, Oudenarde, and Rossbach, and few decisive or useful successes. As for the moral influence of France, the French Shakespeare, Dante, Raphael, Beethoven, Michael Angelo, are sought in vain; and while the Englishman can point to his institutions and language thriving over a third of the world, the Frenchman of our day can point to no colony but Algeria, and there to little more than garrisons. In short, Mr. Matthew Arnold's verse—

"France, great in all things, but supreme in none"—

would seem likely to secure this essayist's fullest approbation; and doubtless he would dissent from the proposition that to be great in all things is of itself a kind of supremacy, and is to be acknowledged as such.

—Having made out to his own satisfaction that the French are not leaders of human thought—in the sense, at any rate, of being the greatest originators of thought, however else their claim might plausibly be urged—the *Cornhill* writer answers his own query in his own way, his answer being, in brief, that France is the spoiled child of Europe: no other people respects her very much; all like her and are amused by her. And this because Frenchmen themselves live for amusement—avow that fact to themselves, do not set themselves up for anything else than sinners, are no hypocrites, and, in short, fill the position among other nations that is filled in private circles by those merry, bright-witted rakes who do and say with impunity what would not be allowed in the case of steadier persons, and yet what these steadier persons do not dislike to hear said and see done, though dignity—perhaps something worse—may prevent their doing it themselves. This, it will be seen, may pass very well for magazine disquisition upon "national character"—a species of writing in which all sorts of philosophers have at one time and another engaged, and in which even the best of them are more ready to remember the points of difference between different nations than to remember the points of likeness between two communities of human beings who may happen to be living under somewhat different circumstances. It is thus that we get not only the gay Frenchman of the old-school geographers, who always straps down his trowsers and eats ices in *cafés*, but also the democratic American, always being democratic, of M. de Tocqueville. But however profound our *Cornhill* essayist may be in his philosophy, he is readable when he comes to draw portraits of his contemporary editors, among whom are M. John Lemoine, M. Edouard Hervé, M. Louis Veuilot, M. Ernest Renan, M. Louis Blanc, M. Emile Girardin, M. Francescque Sarcey, M. Clément Duvernois, M. J. J. Weiss, M. Henri de Pène, M. Paul de Cassagnac, M. "Timothée Trimm," and a dozen more. The writer

appears to know some of these gentlemen, and to know about all of them and treats of them all as if he had in a measure got over his feeling of amusement at them as "foreigners." Still, no true Englishman will be displeased at the tone of his writing, and M. de Cassagnac—whom he pronounces diffuse in style, but a good fencer—may even now be preparing to do himself the pleasure of a meeting with him.

SARA COLERIDGE.*

IN his poem called the "Triad," which is full of exquisite touches of refined and delicate fancy, Wordsworth, after describing his daughter Dora and Edith Southey, thus depicts Sara Coleridge, the daughter of the poet, as she was in her twenty-seventh year:

"Last of the three, though eldest born,
Reveal thyself like pensive Morn
Touched by the skylark's earliest note,
Ere humbler gladness be afloat
But whether in the semblance drest
Of Dawn, or Eve, fair vision of the west,
Come with each anxious hope subdued
By woman's gentle fortitude,
Each grief, through meekness, settling into rest.
—Or I would hail thee when some high-wrought page
Of a closed volume lingering in thy hand
Has raised thy spirit to a peaceful stand
Among the glories of a happier age."

"Her brow hath opened on me—see it there,
Brightening the umbrage of her hair!
So gleams the crescent moon, that loves
To be descried through shady groves.
Tenderest bloom is on her cheek;
Wish not for a richer streak:
Nor dread the depth of meditative eye,
But let thy love, upon that azure field
Of thoughtfulness and beauty, yield
Its homage offered up in purity.
What wouldst thou more? In sunny glade,
Or under leaves of thickest shade,
Was such a stillness e'er diffused
Since earth grew calm while angels mused?
Softly she treads, as if her foot were loth
To crush the mountain dew-drops—soon to melt
On the flower's breast; as if she felt
That flowers themselves, whate'er their hue,
With all their fragrance, all their glistening,
Call to the heart for inward listening."

It were an infelicity that might well awaken a sentimental regret should so lovely a poetic image as this be changed into a plain figure of mere prose. And this is, alas! the effect, in spite of many elements of sweetness and superior excellence, of the 'Memoir and Letters of Sara Coleridge.' The interest of the book, such as it is, lies not in the incidents of the life, but in the expression it affords of the character of a woman of some uncommon intellectual gifts and some personal accomplishments and graces.

Sara Coleridge was born in 1802, the fourth and youngest child of Coleridge's ill-mated marriage. She was born at her uncle Southey's house, at Keswick, in the absence of her father. Her childhood and youth were spent under the same roof and under the guardianship of Southey, who, with all tenderness and faithfulness, supplied the place of her own irresponsible, neglectful, and selfish father. From him, however, his daughter inherited the most marked traits of her nature, and for him she entertained a pathetic reverence. It is to Southey's highest credit that such a feeling as possessed Sara Coleridge's heart toward her father was possible to her. Any one of less generosity than Southey would have hindered the growth of the sentiment, not necessarily by open expression, but almost inevitably by the indication in general moral judgments of the contempt which such a course of life as Coleridge pursued could not but awaken in an upright and conscientious man. Inheriting from her father a sensitive organization, an imaginative temperament, a reflective disposition, Sara Coleridge was fitted by nature to receive easily the impress of the literary influences which surrounded her. To Southey and Wordsworth she owed the best part of her education. In the intercourse of domesticity with them, she learned to live simply and to think highly. She was early a student, early fond of serious meditation; and while her life moved in quiet paths, her soul was filled with interests that are seldom the concern of girls. In 1822, she became engaged to her cousin, Henry Nelson Coleridge—a man not unworthy of her. They were not married till 1829. In 1843, her husband died. Their married life had been what is called happy, except for the interruptions and anxieties of ill-health. She had been occupied with the care of her children and with literary interests, for which her taste continued to increase. After her husband's death, she continued to devote herself to her children, and she gave much time and thought to the editing of her father's works. Her health, which always had been delicate, broke down in 1851, and she died on the 3d of May, 1852, in the forty-ninth year of her age.

Upon this framework of fact her life was built up. She left a very precious

* 'Memoir and Letters of Sara Coleridge. Edited by her Daughter.' New York: Harper & Brothers. 1874. Cr. 8vo, pp. xxxi-328.

memory to a small circle of intimate friends. She had made a strong impression of high intellectual powers upon a larger, but still small, section of the public, and to the numbers who knew only her name, she was of interest as the daughter of Coleridge, the niece of Southey, the friend of Wordsworth—a creature of the imagination worthy of these associations. Mr. De Vere, in a letter to her daughter, printed in this volume, says:

"Great and various as were your mother's talents, it was not from them that she derived what was special to her. It was from the degree in which she had inherited the feminine portion of genius. She had a keener appreciation of what was highest and most original in thought than of subjects nearer the range of ordinary intellects. She moved with the lightest step when she moved over the loftiest ground. Her feet were beautiful on the mountain-tops of ideal thought. In this respect, I should suppose she must have differed from almost all women whom we associate with literature. I remember hearing her say that she hardly considered herself to be a woman of letters. She felt herself more at ease when musing on the mysteries of the soul, or discussing the most arduous speculations of philosophy and theology, than when dealing with the humbler topics of literature."

And it is in accordance with this discriminating statement that Sara Coleridge's chief claim to remembrance in connection with literature lies in the essays and notes, mainly on controverted topics of theology and metaphysics, with which she illustrated the editions of her father's works that she superintended. They display learning rare in a woman, as well as a considerable power of speculation and of skill in dealing with the terms and propositions of metaphysics. But she had inherited from her father the tendency to over-refinement and subtlety rather than clearness of thought, and she had adopted from him his mode of speculation, in which baseless assumptions are often made to do the duty of sound arguments, and to serve as substructure for the most lofty but unsubstantial edifices of fancy. Coleridge had the faculty of deceiving himself with the notion that he was thinking, when in truth he was dissipating his intellectual energies in the practice of the mere form without the substance of thought. This faculty was helped by his tendency to mysticism, and by his adoption of an unintelligible scheme of theology. Nothing impresses a certain class of minds more effectively than the self-confidence of an inaccurate thinker, especially if it be united, as in Coleridge's case, with great powers of expression, gleams of true insight, and a highly poetic genius. His daughter became one of his most thorough disciples. Her affection, which had found little opportunity for expression in personal relations with her neglectful parent, her pride in his repute, and her inheritance of intellectual tendencies and sympathies, seem gradually to have shaped her mind upon the model of his. But it was the speculative, more than the imaginative and poetic, side of his nature that was reflected by hers. And that portion of his speculations was specially attractive to her in which he attempted to build up a system of evangelical theology upon a curiously ingenious and complex metaphysical basis. The more important letters in the volume before us are metaphysico-theological discussions, in which the cut-and-dry formulas of the evangelical school have a large place. The letters show an admirable temper and spirit, reveal a very pure and pious soul, but are dreary expositions of a scheme which, in the effort to reconcile philosophy with the creed of a narrow party of a single church, resulted in an unsatisfactory and lifeless compound of formalism and mysticism.

The chief impression left by the letters is that Sara Coleridge's existence was far too much intellectualized. The sweet feminine soul was starved by the claims of the restless and dissatisfied intelligence. Her letters, even those to her husband, take the form of essays; they want the grace of easy friendly communication. She is always a little conscious of being seated in the lecturer's chair, and what she has to say must, to our regret, turn out at times, if not tedious, at least commonplace. Her notion of letter-writing is given by herself in a letter to a friend, and the passage is characteristic of her manner. "Letter-writing," she says, "is a method of visiting our friends in their absence, and one which has some advantages peculiar to itself; for persons who have any seriousness of character at all endeavor to put the better part of their mind upon paper; and letter-writing is one of the many calls which life affords to put our minds in order, the salutary effect of which is obvious" (p. 159).

What memories of delightful letters of women who were not always putting their minds in order, however salutary might be the process, rise to the thought—letters in which the heart, the fancy, the playful wit, the delicate observation, the exquisite expression, all have share! It is with a smile, but with a smile that does not exclude a tender, pathetic sense of the incomplete life of a woman who could write in this fashion to her husband, that we read such a passage as the following: "We ought, indeed, my beloved husband, to be conscious of our blessings, for we are better off than all below us, perhaps than almost all above us. The great art of life, especially for persons of our age, who are leaving the vale of youth behind us, just lingering still perhaps in the latter stage of it, and seeing the bright golden fields

at the entrance of it more distinctly than those nearer to our present station, is to cultivate the love of doing good and promoting the interests of others, avoiding at the same time," etc., etc. (p. 179). We cannot quote more. It is too hard to see the ideal Sara Coleridge of the "Triad" thus changing into a figure as stiff and unattractive as one of Mrs. Jarley's wax-works.

A touch, a look, a single brief expression, may afford the measure of a character more truly than long speech or usual habit. The gesture, the glance, betray the inner recesses of the soul. The following sentences are extraordinary revelations of the writer's character. We will not qualify them with the epithet they deserve. She is writing to Mr. De Vere, concerning Dante:

"Don't you observe how much less of sturdy, independent pride and reserve there is in Italians, and in all foreigners, than in us Englishmen? An English poet would not have written this of himself—he would have thought it babyish; and still more much of Dante's behavior with Beatrice, which I have always thought has a touch of Jerry Sneak in it. Indeed, he actually compares himself to a baby fixing its eyes on its ma" (p. 457).

Failure of perception, blankness of mind, absence of feeling, could hardly find more absolute expression than in these words. There are happily better things than this in the book: some pleasing reflections, some natural feeling, some fair criticism. But the general effect of the volume is one of disappointment. Sara Coleridge is no longer a creature for the imagination to delight in. She will remain of interest as the daughter of the poet, more than by her own right. These letters show her to us as a serious-minded, good woman, with unusual intellectual powers, and with personal graces that attracted a narrow circle of friends. But of the woman complete in all sweet feminine gifts and charms, free from self-consciousness, free from dogmatism and vanity, with feelings unformalized by creed or theory, with a deep and simple heart, of such a woman the traces are slight in the "Memoir and Letters of Sara Coleridge."

JACQUEMART'S CERAMIC ART.*

THIS handsome volume is almost exactly reproduced, except as to the cover, from the French original which appeared a year ago. Within the pages are nearly of the same size and appearance, the woodcuts are interspersed with the text in the same way, and the etchings are printed apparently from the same plates, and have their titles on their thin fly-leaves in the same French fashion. This similarity leads one to expect a likeness in more important points, and, in fact, this book seems to be as nearly a reproduction of M. Jacquemart's book as Mrs. Palliser and the publishers could make it. The differences are the inevitable ones; thus the etchings, which are printed separately and of full-page size, are not as good impressions as those to be found in an early copy of the French edition, and the woodcuts are not quite so delicate, though perfectly satisfactory and clear. Mrs. Palliser's translation, too, though close and accurate, is not all that could be wished for in ease and grace. Nor is the meaning always perfectly rendered; though, what is strange, the principal faults are not those of misunderstanding of technical terms, of which, indeed, Mrs. Palliser seems to have an accurate knowledge, but rather slips in the rendering of common French expressions into the corresponding English. Thus, on page 195, the Greeks are credited with the invention of "a rudimentary plastic," the excuse for which is to be found in *une plastique rudimentaire* of the original, which is tolerable French, while the translation is not English. On page 234, the earthen pots found in the Seine, and supposed to have accumulated there as the accidental waifs from some mediæval cabaret, are called "recipients," as of liquor, because the French word happened to be "*réceptifs*"; "receptacles" would have been better, and "cups" or "flagons," or, more undeterminedly, "vessels," would have been better still. So *vulgariser* is not to vulgarize, but to make popular; when Alexandre Dumas told the late Emperor that he was a *vulgarisateur*, he meant to claim a good deal of credit for himself and his historical novels. "*Ils ne sont pas du même usage*" does not mean "they are not of the same usefulness," but, rather, "they are not used for the same purpose." And so on; but we do not consider this a very grave evil, at least in any one book, however serious it may be that translations should nearly always be full of just such utterly needless errors. Moreover, it is not so great an evil in this book as it would be in a purely literary production; and yet we find this translation an unusually correct one. Thoroughly good translations, such as, let us say, the best of Carlyle's, are nearly as rare as books like "Sartor Resartus." Of course, great labor would be required to make every sentence of the translation of a big octavo as perfect in rendering the author's thought into idiomatic English as, for instance, that of the catch-words and war-cries, the epigrammatic sayings

* "History of the Ceramic Art. By Albert Jacquemart. Translated by Mrs. Bury Palliser." London: Sampson Low; New York: Scribner, Welford & Armstrong. 1873.

and bits of temporary slang, scattered through 'The French Revolution.' The volume before us would have had to wait while the touchstone and the file should go over it; and, after many days' work, it would not have been very much better for its purpose.

The works on pottery and porcelain of which so many have appeared during the last few years, unless they are merely dictionaries of marks and dates and makers, are all of the nature of historical essays. Those of them which are monographs are apt to be the most accurate and the most full. Of the remainder—those ambitious books which try to include the whole history of the ceramic art, or a large part of it—we are inclined to give the first place to M. Jacquemart's present work. One great advantage is, that it is the most recent; and that means a great deal when so many investigators are at work, and when important discoveries are made every year, not merely of new and valuable specimens, but of documentary and other evidence. So short a time ago as 1862, when M. Jacquemart published his splendid book on porcelain, he could not have told us anything about the extraordinary *faience* of Oiron, for instance, the "Henri Deux" ware of the old catalogues—even if it had come within his province. Mr. Benjamin Fillon has cleared up that once mysterious matter, the doubtful origin and manufacture of that fine pottery of which less than seventy pieces are known, for one piece of which the South Kensington Museum gave eleven hundred pounds ten years ago, of which a fine piece might fetch two thousand pounds under the hammer to-day. In the wide and interesting field of majolica (for so we propose to call it, following M. Jacquemart and Mrs. Palliser, and ignoring the purist Englishman, who nowadays spells it *maiolica*)—in this particolored and variegated meadow, diapered with the wildest fancies of flower and leaf, and inhabited by the strangest beasts and men and demigods that filled the fancies of the lesser artists of the Renaissance, all our knowledge is new; what has been learned about majolica within fifteen years has not been so much an addition to the old stock of knowledge as an overturning and supplanting of absurd old errors. And accordingly, we are sure to find the chapters on Henri Deux ware and majolica, as also those on the *faience* of Rouen, the stone wares of Flanders and Germany, and the like, inspired by the newest discoveries and the most matured judgment of connoisseurs.

It is to be remarked that the essay form is carefully preserved. The body of the book is not cut up with tables and classified lists, nor are such aids to memory added in an appendix. The hand-book style, the dictionary look, are avoided as much as possible, and the text is a disquisition upon certain points that seem to the author the most worthy of consideration, with no more reference to special objects or collections than enough to explain his meaning. This characteristic of the book is not in its favor as a book for the student or collector to refer to when in haste for a morsel of knowledge: it is probably advantageous to it in a proportionate degree, considered as a pleasant and stimulating book for beginners and for general reading. In one part, however, the book is more minute and less generally interesting—that is, in the chapters devoted to the various *fabriques* of France. Many of the smaller establishments in the provinces had almost been lost to memory until late investigation had recalled them, and their wares had been confounded with those of more prominent and still existing factories. It is probable that no work gives an account of these at once so full and so correct as the present one.

Of the illustrations, the twelve etchings by M. Jules Jacquemart would be called excellent if by any other artist, and are only surpassed by the same draughtsman's work in larger and more costly publications than this. M. Jacquemart's style seems to be changing, however, and is less hard and formal, less strikingly portrait-like, in these etchings than in those of ten years ago in 'L'Histoire de la Porcelaine,' or in the more recent illustrations of arms and armor and precious objects in the great collections of Paris; or even in the reproductions of the pictures of our New York Metropolitan Museum of Art made not three years ago. The woodcuts are beautiful, and, though a number are old friends, the majority are of wholly unfamiliar pieces.

MAGAZINES FOR JANUARY.

SCRIBNER'S for January is as well provided with readable matter and as profuse of illustrations as usual. The reader will understand what he has to expect when we say that among the contributors are writers so well known as R. H. Stoddard, T. W. Higginson, Jules Verne, J. A. Froude, George MacDonald, Mrs. Harding Davis, John Hay, F. Bret Harte, C. D. Warner, J. G. Saxe, Gail Hamilton, and "H. H." Of a large number of these ladies and gentlemen it may be said that for many years now they have been regular magazine-makers, and that their work is of a merit tried and approved in the eyes of the magazine-reading public. We ought to add the name of Dr. Holland, who also is well known, and who, as editor of the

magazine, furnishes each month a certain quantity of discourse upon such current matters as seem to him to require comment, and who is as satisfactory as ever. The topics treated of in his department this month are the Evangelical Alliance and the prospective disappearance of many of the sects; the abominable badness of the cheap American restaurant; the pernicious character of much of our literature for boys. On each of these subjects the common consent of mankind is expressed by Dr. Holland with a vigor that leaves nothing to be desired in the way of vigorousness. As regards the tone of some of our juvenile literature, our editor's audience, perhaps, needs no counsel. It ought not. But, on the other hand, perhaps it does; for the short-sightedness, or rather blindness, of perfectly respectable and rather intelligent parents in this particular is all but incredible. Dr. Holland speaks of "the quality and animus of a magazine which is published by E. J. Brett of London, and is distributed by an advertised general agency" throughout the country, and which deserves denunciation as "a moral nuisance." But we need not look so far from home. Any one of our news-stands will at any time show us an American magazine for school children in which the principal illustration will very likely represent a gallant boy of fourteen tripping up a policeman, or sending the assistant master headlong down a flight of steps. Or in a juvenile magazine which is of such pretensions as to have a department in French, we may this month see a clever picture illustrating a capitally written little story, both of which, picture and story, inculcate the lesson that a good thing for you to do in the snow-balling season, if you are a boy, is to go softly behind an elderly couple and suddenly give the old gentleman a snow-ball, as hard as you can hit him, just behind his ear. You are then to express your regret at this accident, and say that if that is the way people are getting hit in the public streets you, for your part, are going home. We find this little sketch in the *Saint Nicholas*. There is nothing very dreadful in it all; but if such teaching is admitted into the best juvenile magazine in the country—and a very good magazine it is—what is to be looked for in the poorer ones? And even though there is nothing very dreadful in it all, we may properly insist that while every boy should be permitted his fair allowance of mischief, and may be at least connived at in a due amount of strategic concealment of all the facts in a given case, it is nevertheless true that there is no need of supplying him with clever artists and bright story-tellers to instruct him in these arts. It is true that the *Saint Nicholas* sins but seldom, either in this way or in the far worse way of mawkishness and goodness which has infested juvenile literature since the days of Little Nell at least, and which the women who have since then become so numerous in the fields of fiction have not helped to diminish.

Of the writers just enumerated as contributing to make the January *Scribner's*, there is none who has done anything with which his admirers will find themselves unfamiliar, or with which the general public will be pleased in any especial manner. A writer whom we have not named, Mr. Edward King, continues what is doubtless as attractive an article as any of those by authors of more reputation than himself. Some months ago he was sent into the Southwest, and he has since been giving the readers of *Scribner's* some pleasant sketches of the social, political, agricultural, and other aspects of life in those regions. He is to be called a fluent rather than a statistical or weighty reporter; but he seems to give a clear notion of the general condition of affairs, and often is graphic and amusing. The letter-press is copiously adorned with pictures, and, altogether, Mr. King's papers, considering their subject, the way in which it is handled, and its illustrations, are a good specimen of a kind of serial more popular with Americans—men, women, and boys—than most new novels.

Mr. Higginson makes a critical notice of the works and literary character of Mr. Charles Dudley Warner, whom he assigns to the "Meditative School," as he proposes to call it. There is hardly need of a specific name, we should say. And to say so may be well enough, for our men of letters still have a trick of magnifying their office. We make as much noise over some titmouse's one egg as if eggs were a new thing in the world, and the one just laid were the roc's egg itself. It is pleasant to imagine the anguish of some of our American men of letters could they be put into the spiritual charge of the late Jonathan Swift, for example, and compelled, under pain of some conversation from that gentleman, to fling off anonymous pamphlets. With regard to Mr. Higginson's suggestions about Mr. Warner, who, as it happens, has been much more read than criticised, they appear to us to be very sound. Mr. Warner is one of a class of writers of whom the United States have been turning out a great many of late—writers whose method is humorous and taking, but of whom one by-and-by asks whether or not they have much in their heads, and how long they will be able to keep up writing. "The thinness of material," of which Mr. Higginson hints a suspicion, soon becomes felt and perceived, rather than "suspected," and we see the "humorist" disappear in the jester or droll. It

seems to us that on another page of this same magazine, in Mr. Warner's serious essay on Mr. Froude and his notions of progress, the thinness of the material is very obvious.

A criticism of Mr. Quincy Ward's Shakespeare; a happy ending of the "Princess of Thule"; more of the "New Hyperion"; a biographical sketch of the late Chester Harding; an account of the superstitious lore in which the Japanese fox figures; an affecting and simple story by the author of "Blindpits"; some chat about French marriages; a description of the gambling-hells of Monaco; a wondrous recipe for the cooking of a goose; and some other matter, constitute the January *Lippincott*, in which there is little to skip. We might appropriately refer at some length to this same goose, for the January magazines of this year make a singularly small show of sausages and turkeys and carols and elves and angels and Scrooges and Marleys and unrelenting guardians, and the other properties. For whatever reason, a reaction appears to have set in, and very heartily, we imagine, it will be welcomed, for the wholesome mirth and good feeling of the season had been to no inconsiderable extent overlaid by such rubbish. As for *Lippincott's* goose, one would say that, so far as concerns savoriness at least, Mr. Bob Cratchit himself might be satisfied with it. The business of preparing him for dinner is thus to be entered upon and conducted: A young, healthy goose, and one in his first feathers, is to be selected. For one week he is to be fed on corn-meal dough, and is to be allowed the run of a yard, with plenty of sweet grass and an abundant supply of fair pure water. Then for two weeks he is to be fed upon boiled rice, with which you may, if you choose, mix chopped celery, and at the end of this period he is ready for the knife. But by no means for the spit or the Dutch oven. He is to be drawn while his feathers are still on him, and within him is to be put a large Labrador herring, after which he must be wrapped up in several folds of linen cloth, and you must then bury him for four days under three feet of clean clay. There is more of the recipe, and it is much of the same kind as that already given. It concludes by advising that the owner of the bird, in inviting persons to the feast, should invite according to a rule allowing to each man four pounds.

"Japanese Fox Myths" tells some rather amusing stories about the fox of fable, who in Japan as elsewhere is an astute animal, unscrupulous in the pursuit of his own ends, and given over to an evil mind. The Japanese appear to confer on him many of the attributes of our demons and hobgoblins. For instance, they believe that he enters into people, as the devil into the Gadarene swine, and possesses them. It is said—and to hear it said gives rise to certain reflections in the minds of American citizens—that "the maudlin and indecent conduct of certain foreign gentlemen, the shining exponents of 'modern Aryan civilization,'" is explained by the Japanese not as being caused by "alcohol and total depravity, or that partial depravity commonly called 'cussedness,'" but as being the result of vulpine possession.

The *Catholic World* seems to begin the year in the right spirit. Casting a look backward over 1873 before turning its face towards 1874, it concedes the death of King Herod and the Emperor Tiberius, but is unable to base any hope upon this state of facts: "There is no pagan Rome," it says, "but there is a Christian Germany. The dead ashes of the divine Emperor Tiberius were long ago blown about the world, but the divine Emperor William still lives. There is no Herod, but there is an Emanuel whose name is as characteristic of the man as the word Eumenides of what it was intended to represent. . . . The world seems at the crisis of a fever." For the rest, the *Catholic World* has its usual array of articles, original and selected, and nothing to call for particular comment.

Mr. David A. Wells contributes to the January *Atlantic* an interesting and well-written article on "Local Taxation." In the *Nation* for February 6, 1873 (No. 337) is an article, also by Mr. Wells, on the same subject, in which was pointed out the curious fact that the whole theory and practice of local taxation in the United States were being gradually undermined by the courts of last resort, as the English theory and practice were long ago by theirs. In his present article, Mr. Wells contributes additional evidence of the change which he says is going on. Without going into unnecessary details, we may say that the present theory of taxation is simply to tax everything, houses, horses, books, lands or mortgages, bonds, bills, notes—all property, tangible or intangible, real or unreal, equally, and to tax it in the case of personal property at the owner's place of residence. The courts are gradually, by judicial decision, breaking up this system, laying down rules in particular cases which are directly antagonistic to it. Mr. Wells refers to a number of cases, particularly one lately decided by the Supreme Court of the United States (15 Wall, 306, 328) and a recent decision of the Supreme Court of California, which holds the double taxation of mortgages illegal. The tendency of the courts is to declare the *situs* of personal property for taxation to be the place in which it is found, to break up all double taxation to make it more and more difficult to tax

such property as is really mere evidence of debt, and make all taxation fall upon what is tangible, visible, and real.

Of the late Mr. Agassiz's 'Evolution and Permanence of Type,' the keynote is given in these words: "It cannot be too soon understood that science is one, and that, whether we investigate language, philosophy, theology, history, or physics, we are dealing with the same problem, culminating in the knowledge of ourselves. . . . Our own nature demands from us this double allegiance." These two weighty articles the *Atlantic* balances, so to speak, with some matter that is decidedly light; as "Lida Ann," "The Two Pillars," "Baddeck and that Sort of Thing." Light enough, but also bright and entertaining, is the beginning of the story of "Prudence Palfrey," by Mr. T. B. Aldrich, "whose story of 'Marjorie Daw,'" says the prospectus of the *Atlantic's* new publishers, "took the edge off the panic." What with these articles, and the free-and-easy manner of "Mose Evans" and of Colonel Waring's "Fox-Hunting in England," the magazine has this month something of an unusual flavor, which will be agreeable to some palates. And a continuance of it may be confidently depended upon as long as Mr. Baker's "Mose Evans" is running. His 'New Timothy' and 'Inside' are proofs and guarantees of his singular aptitude for getting the local coloring of his scenes and catching the outside marks of his figures, and such parts of their characters as find expression in the broader marks. Mr. Whittier, Dr. Holmes, Mr. Bayard Taylor, and Mrs. Celia Thaxter unite to keep the poetry of the *Atlantic* up to its traditional level.

The *Galaxy* contains for its longest article a curiously ill-judged and unskilful piece of polemical writing by Mr. J. S. Black. He travels miles out of the record, in which he has a fairly good case, of which he makes a great deal, and leaves off his attack upon Mr. Adams's Mr. Seward in order to urge once more with customary violence and heat the old arguments of Mr. Buchanan's Attorney-General. That the cause in which so many arguments were expended in vain was a cause which only the last argument could settle; that the question was, which of two sets of men and two sets of ideas should absolutely abase and rule the other; and that in the struggle constitutions and institutions had to undergo some strain about which it is sheer childishness to groan, Mr. Black does not seem to understand. He probably will die without knowing that he is in the position of a man who has fallen among his enemies, and been as thoroughly stripped, beaten, and led into captivity as the laws, not of peace, but of war, allow. This is the main and vital defect of his general position. On the narrower issue he makes a bitter and furious, but a skilful and successful fight.

The infectious nature of the *odium philologicum* appears to be exemplified in the case of the editor of the *Galaxy*, who cannot so much as write a brief marginal note to a philological article by Mr. R. G. White without himself reaching "the large utterance" of the verbal critics: "The mild and Pecksniffian tone of a letter recently published by Dr. Hall, with its demure talk about the language of gentlemen," etc., etc.

Taking its weak spots and its strong spots together, the first number of the *International Review* must be called a good first number. The new quarterly is, by the way, to be a bi-monthly, for its publishers, Messrs. A. S. Barnes & Co., announce that they have received so much encouragement in their new enterprise that they have determined on issuing six numbers a year instead of four. We should say that the strongest parts of the *International* are ex-President Woolsey's ("International Arbitration") and Baron Franz Von Holtzendorff's ("The Prussian Church Law"). Both of these are truly of interest to a public on each side of the water, and Professor Von Holtzendorff's has the further merit—from one of the *International's* points of view—of being adapted to enlist in its behalf the attention of an American public, religious and otherwise, which takes a very vivid interest in half-a-dozen questions discussed by the Professor. Among these are the attitude of the Roman Court towards the Protestant Churches, of the Ultramontanes towards Protestant Governments, and especially the North German Imperial Government; the history during the last quarter of a century of the three "privileged" churches of Prussia; the relations, past and present, of Prussian Liberalism to Catholicism; the intent of the North German and Prussian Governments in their recent action against the Jesuits; the probable future of Protestant and Liberal Europe as against the Infallibilists and the reactionary party. Professor Von Holtzendorff touches incidentally on one or two things his handling of which may not very well please some of his American readers. Of these things one is the debate in this country about the reading of the Bible in the public schools. The other thing is the general relation of the state to religious bodies. We do wrong to say that it is only incidentally that this latter problem is dealt with. In reality, it forms a good part of our essayist's theme. What we had in mind was some few detached remarks which reminded us of the large class of public men and public instructors in this country who forget the enormous, the almost overwhelming, difficulties of government and statecraft in old

densely populated countries, and who dismiss all hard questions by enouncing eloquent and contingently true eulogies on Liberty, and pointing to our boundless West. However, the deluge is to be after our time; only the habit of flouting Noah leads to various contemporary evils. Professor Von Holtzendorff's essay will for several reasons repay study; and it may be said to require a little study. Ex-President Woolsey in his article is mainly historical, and shows the antiquity of the process of international arbitration. This, however, he may be said to show without detracting from the dignity of the latest great illustration of the principle. Indeed, this dignity he enhances by his learned list of small cases; and by his remark, "It must be confessed, however, that the compromissory way of reaching a just decision has not been applied, common as it has been in modern times, to many very important international questions." Several aspects of the general question as to the feasibility of settling international disputes without war—some of a dreamlike character, and none seeming very real and waking—come up for Mr. Woolsey's treatment, and they all get the benefit of his penetrating good sense. Professor W. B. Carpenter's essay on deep-sea explorations and what it has taught the geologist and geographer will, we hope, not be found too difficult in its details by the general reader. A small acquaintance with modern researches into the physical condition of the ocean depths, and the nature of the life there found, will suffice to make this a very interesting paper. The doctrine of Vertical Oceanic Circulation—a favorite doctrine of Professor Carpenter's, and in a certain sense his own—with its bearing on the theories as to the climatic condition of Northwestern Europe, receives a good deal of Professor Carpenter's attention. So, too, of the azoic condition of the deep basins of the Mediterranean, and of the under-currents into the same sea from the Euxine, and out of it through the Straits of Gibraltar. We have hardly left to ourselves space enough to do more than give the names of the articles entitled respectively "Universal Education," "Fires in American Cities," "Our Late Panic," and that one entitled "Books," which closes the *Review*. The two last-mentioned are articles not to be commended for their thought or their tone; that entitled "Universal Education" is mostly vague and general, and when it is not vague and general is, nevertheless, not up to the standard of a good review. It is not telling people much nowadays to tell them that normal schools are useful; that compulsory education may sometimes be good; and that it would be well if parents could be made to take an interest in the welfare of their children. The paper on fires in our American cities contains a great many sound remarks on various topics—for example, as to the way in which insurance companies overdo business; in which architects and owners build scandalously unsafe structures; and in which fire-departments fail in organization and duty. It is worth reading. The last sentences of the article some may think curious:

"It is worthy of emphatic notice that the New Jerusalem of the Apocalypse has no inflammable materials—its walls of jasper, its foundations precious stones, its streets of gold, its gates of pearl. Emblems these are, no doubt, of the strength and beauty with which we are to build characters that shall come forth unscathed and immortal from the fires of earthly temptation and trial; but may we not equally take them as types of the material structures, which, in their fragility or their enduring massiveness, we are prone to build after our own likeness?"

BRACHET'S FRENCH DICTIONARY.*

M. AUGUSTE BRACHET belongs to the new school of French philologists which is doing much to clear France of the reproach that foreigners, principally Germans, have done more than natives to further a truly scientific study of the French language. The names of Diez, Mätzner, Bartsch, and others will always be mentioned in connection with French philology; but the learned editors of the *Revue Critique* and of *Romania* have the great merit of first setting the example in France of a solid and broad criticism in linguistic matters. Their horizon is not limited. They have profited by the labors of the learned of other nations, and they present the results of their acquaintance with German learning especially, enriched by original research, in a form that is as agreeable and clear as the other is sometimes dry and intricate. Among many of the new school, MM. Gaston Paris, Paul Meyer, and Brachet have devoted themselves to researches in the domain of French philology. M. Brachet, besides his 'Grammaire Historique' and his 'Dictionnaire Etymologique,' both elementary, has written several works of special erudition. It is in consequence of his own contributions to philology, as much as to those of others, that his 'Historical Grammar' (published in 1857) now needs a complete revision to bring it up fully to the present state of knowledge.

The 'Dictionnaire Etymologique' has found an able translator in Mr.

Kitchen. As the editions now stand, the English work is far preferable to the French. It is considerably increased, probably by the author himself. The introduction (126 pages) has in part been rewritten, and the whole is presented in a better, clearer form than in any of the previous French editions. The 'Etymological Dictionary' is not addressed to the learned but to the learning world. The author carefully avoids all discussion of mooted points. He gives, in a clear, elementary manner, the results of the etymological researches of Diez, Littré, Scheler, and others, showing their justness, and tracing back carefully the present forms of French words to their Latin originals. In this consists the merit, the originality of the work. There are other dictionaries in which French etymologies may be found: Scheler's work, for instance, may in many cases be fuller and more satisfactory; but he, as well as Littré and Diez, presupposes a certain amount of knowledge of the subject. The present work, on the contrary, is a guide for the learner; its aim is to explain every fact stated, and to account, as far as possible, for every change that has occurred in the passage of Latin words into French. Whenever an etymology is not certain, no conjectures are admitted; the word is dismissed with the phrase "origin unknown." This last feature, though in perfect accordance with the general plan of the author, is liable to some objection. It is, to say the least, unsatisfactory to look in an etymological dictionary for information in regard to such common words as *petit, mauvais, soin, besoin, besogne*, and others (above 600), and find nothing but such a statement. Even the merest beginner will not rest satisfied with such information; nor is it right that he should. A plausible conjecture, given as a mere conjecture, with perhaps a word or two to call attention to the impossibility or absurdity of some of the old derivations proposed by Ménage and others, would tend much to correct some of the prevalent mistakes that are now current in regard to the origin of just such words.

The long introduction is good. Book III., "Phonetics," containing the history of the Latin letters in their passage into French, is excellent, better than anything on the same subject that has heretofore been published. It is much increased in the English version, and it is to be hoped that the author will embody these new researches in some future edition of his 'Historical Grammar,' where they naturally belong. They are, of course, based on that mine of information in regard to the Romance Languages, Diez's 'Grammatik der romanischen Sprachen.' Much is also taken from the preface of a recent work by M. G. Paris, 'La Vie de Saint Alexis,' to which the indebtedness is not sufficiently acknowledged. But the great merit of M. Brachet is the clearness of his statements, and the beautiful arrangement of the material. The whole treatment of this difficult subject shows the author to be capable of original development, carried further than anything he has yet attempted.

A list of *errata* would not have been superfluous in the English version. There are several such mistakes as *gut* (p. xv.) for *gril*. On p. xxv. we find *boulingrin* (bowling green) placed among sea terms derived from the English; probably merely a misprint for *bouline* (bow line).

The translation is excellent, but there is evidently a slip on p. xx., where we are told that "many strange words have forced themselves" into the Breton dialect; *étranger* means foreign, and the author wishes to dwell particularly upon the fact that French words introduced into the Breton were foreign as far as that dialect were concerned. Again, though Galvani was an "Italian physician," as the translator has it, the French work speaks of him as "*un physicien italien*," not a *physician*, but a *physicist*.

There are not a few inaccuracies for which the translator is not responsible. To mention only a few: on p. xx, *bidet, dartre, garotter, matras*, are given, probably correctly, as of Celtic origin; in the Dictionary they are said to be of unknown origin. *Cormoran*, in p. xx., is given as Celtic; in the Dictionary the word is referred to the Latin *corvus marinus*, and not a word is said of the Celtic origin, which is well explained by Scheler. There are several other inaccuracies of the same kind. Thus, on the first half of p. xxiii., the following occur: *Hérait, marcher, rapière, brasse, blesser, broncher, carpe, clafir, faucon*, are all said to be of Germanic origin, but in the Dictionary the origin is given as "unknown," or the words are simply referred to a Latin primitive. *Guérite, guide, halberde*, and several others, are given as Germanic; in the Dictionary they are simply referred to the Italian or Spanish. Both statements may be true enough, but in an elementary work they are confusing. *Gaffe*, given as Germanic, is called Celtic in the Dictionary. Many words are also given as Germanic derivations which do not figure at all in the Lexicon. In general, the whole treatment of the Germanic derivations is unsatisfactory.

There are also some puzzling references to the 'Historical Grammar,' and several altogether wrong. Thus *ainsi* is given as being in Old French *ensi*, further back *insi*, from Latin *in-sic*; then follows a reference to 'Historical Grammar,' p. 158. On looking there we find *ainsi*, O. F. *asi*, Lat. *hoc-sic*,

* 'An Etymological Dictionary of the French Language. By A. Brachet, author of 'Historical Grammar of the French Tongue.' Translated by G. W. Kitchen, M.A. New York: Macmillan & Co. 1873.

On another page of the 'Grammar' (p. 163), not referred to in the Dictionary, we find "*ainsi*, origin unknown [perhaps from *ante-sic*.]"

Such signs of haste or careless revision are too common in a work otherwise excellent. They could all be made to disappear in a second edition. Such as it is, Brachet's 'Etymological Dictionary' is by far the best elementary guide that exists in any language to the study of special philology. It is not very pleasant to think that while the French language has such excellent works on its etymology as those of Littré, Scheler, and Brachet, the student of English is reduced to such an imperfect, one-sided attempt as Wedgwood's, or to the meagre etymologies given by Mahn (good as far as they go) in the work known as 'Webster's Dictionary.'

Nast's Illustrated Almanac. (New York: Harper & Brothers. 1873.)—Mr. Thomas Nast's comic almanac offers not only amusement, which it furnishes by means of his pencil and some letterpress from "Mark Twain," "Josh Billings," and other humorists, but also gives the usual more or less inscrutable information, zodiacal, tidal, and in reference to the Sundays after Trinity, which is furnished by other almanacs. Mr. Nast's illustrations begin at the outside of the first cover, and end with the outside of the second, and fill the book. Our readers know very well the kind of illustrations that they ought to expect if they purchase this work, and they will not be disappointed—agreeably or disagreeably; unless, indeed, they have been imagining that Mr. Nast is always to show himself as clever as they thought he was last year, when he had the Greeley campaign to aid him, or two years ago, when the attack on the Tweed Ring was made. But the almanac shows the same skill in giving a certain number of forcible caricatures of typical faces. Nobody will recognize in the artist's Irish servant-girl anything but a welcome libellous caricature, done *con amore*, of that functionary, nor fail to see in the New York barkeeper and the gin-drinking customer the true things themselves, less mercilessly caricatured—drawn, perhaps, with a certain kindness, as if they were not a bad sort of fellows after all. These and other faces we find truthful and amusing. But we confess that, to quote Froissart one time more, we "take our amusement sadly" in a great number of cases. It becomes somewhat serious when we are asked to amuse ourselves with a picture like that on page 38. It is one of a series setting forth some of the infelicities attendant upon domestic life, as that bills come in, and so on. One of these incidental evils is that your little son, not yet out of petticoats, wanders to the croquet ground, where he is hit on the head by a ball. The result as here depicted is that there appears on the head a vile-looking protuberance, which, as regards shape, height, and comparative size, may be represented by a common glass tumbler. And a most vulgar, unwholesome, and repulsive child your little son is in other respects also. This defect of coarseness runs through all the book—to make our statement no larger. A healthy mind—and for purposes of this discussion we assume ours to be such—will not allow itself to be bothered too much, we suppose, by a little vulgarization of its comic almanac. But enough is a feast. And Mr. Nast is not alone a comic-almanac maker, but a person endowed with a useful and valuable gift, which he employs effectively in other fields, and to the employment of which attaches a responsibility. We may add, also, that the very rigid limitations and very great deductions to which this gift of his, as commonly conceived of, is liable, may profitably become the subject of public recognition.

Recent Music and Musicians. (New York: Henry Holt & Co.)—The last decade of the eighteenth century, and the first half of the nineteenth, witnessed the production of a large part of what we now recognize as masterpieces of musical creation. At the head of this activity was Beethoven, who as early as 1810 had attained apparently the highest possible rank in music. The Mozart school of the previous generation was represented by J. B. Cramer, Clementi, and Hummel. The "new romantic school," based on the more fanciful side of the Beethoven foundation, was just coming into vogue in the works of Chopin, Mendelssohn, Schubert, and Schumann. Ignaz Moscheles was born in 1794, and in 1814 commenced his public career as a pianoforte virtuoso and composer, in which he enjoyed the highest success until 1846, when he accepted the chair of pianoforte instruction in the Leipzig Conservatoire (then just founded), where he led a life of quiet usefulness and honor until, full of years, he died in 1870. Moscheles appears to have been a man of a genial and open disposition, with good business tact, a genuine fondness for public appearance, and with that kind of talent which (as distinguished from genius) finds a full and ready sympathy with its own generation. In 'Recent Music and Musicians' we have the history of his life and works, and his delightful relations with the great musicians mentioned above, as well as a multitude of others of every school and nationality, edited by his wife from

his diary and correspondence, and adapted from the German by A. D. Coleridge. A more readable book we have rarely seen.

Geological Stories. By J. E. Taylor, F.L.S., F.G.S. (New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons.)—This little book is made up of a series of articles originally contributed to *Science Gossip*, now for the first time brought together in a more permanent form. The design of the author is to give a succinct geological history of the development of our globe, from its earliest condition down to the first evidences of the appearance of man upon the earth, presenting the essential facts and deductions, side by side, in so popular and entertaining a manner as to interest the unprofessional reader. As an aid in making his subject more attractive, he adopts an autobiographical style. A "piece of granite," a "piece of quartz," slate, limestone, sandstone, rock-salt, and other mineral substances, are made to act as spokesmen, each in chronological order, relating the story of one of the great divisions or periods of geology. The book scarcely treats, as the titles to the chapters would suggest, of physical geology, but rather of palæontology and the progress of life. Thus, a "story of a piece of Whitby jet," of which a pleasing and instructive chapter might be written, has very little to tell us about jet, an article of commerce at the present time largely employed in adding to the charms of young widows, but has a great deal to say about the fossil flora and fauna of the Lias beds of England, in which the mineral happens to occur. A similar remark would apply to nearly every story told. Two serious faults, we think, render the book ill-adapted for beginners in the study of geology. It is an error attempting to compress all the elements of a science into so limited a space. The real object of the author might be gained far more easily by elucidating a few fundamental points more fully, than by seeking to touch upon every subject found in the more advanced manuals and text-books. There is also great lack of judgment shown in the relative importance attached to the subjects treated—minute details being frequently expanded at the expense of more weighty matters. In style, the author is clear, and generally accurate in statement, while the pages are profuse in illustrations, not always well executed.

Irish Emigration to the United States: What it has been and what it is. By the Rev. Stephen Byrne, O.S.D. (New York: Catholic Publication Society.)—This is emphatically a work written in good faith, and with an eye single to the welfare of the people to whom it is addressed. It "does not profess to be one of a peculiarly religious character," and it is noticeably free from prejudice both in speaking of Protestants and in its account of the Government under which we live. "Often," says Father Byrne, "non-Catholics show the greatest liberality in helping to build and decorate our churches." "The writer is acquainted with many cases in which non-Catholic employers—masters and mistresses—will have no servants excepting Catholics who comply with the duties of their religion." "Since the time of the Revolution, there has been no ascendancy party here either in church or in state; but a perfect equality prevails, and even a possibility, where there is a fitness, to enjoy any office of honor or trust. Foreign-born citizens are eligible to any office in the land, excepting only the office of President of the United States." "I know for certain that, outside of large cities, 'strikes' cannot take place with much effect; and that, when we consider this as a free country, labor of all kinds will, in the long run, be free." The Homestead Law "reflects infinite credit upon the legislators of America. It more than realizes the highest dreams of the most ultra communists of this or any other age."

These extracts will serve to show the spirit and intelligence of the author. His main object is to induce the Irish who are already here, and those who are yet to come, to leave the squalor and temptations of the large cities, and betake themselves to the country, as laborers or as farm-proprietors. In this he will have the hearty support of all Americans, and the circulation of his handbook should be promoted by the authorities of every State which desires to increase its working population, or to thin out its pauper classes. Father Byrne has collected testimony from the best sources in regard to the condition, as regards soil, climate, wages, etc., etc., of all the States, and presents it in a compact, easily intelligible form, often with the text of the letter from the Bishop or other responsible authority. His information is not so full as that given in the 'Handbook for Immigrants' of the American Social Association, which perhaps errs on the side of fulness. Like that, however, it is fit to place in the hands of other than Irish immigrants, particularly the German, statistics of the German population everywhere accompanying those of the Irish. An appendix contains tables of the total population of the United States; of the prices of farm and mechanical labor in the several groups of States; and of the population of State capitals and towns and cities having upwards of 8,000 inhabitants; and, finally, a map of the United States satisfies the last requirement of a work of this character.

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THE WEEK IN TRADE AND FINANCE.

DECEMBER 22.

THE money market has remained quite steady, with rates ruling between 5 and 7 per cent. to borrowers in good standing offering desirable collaterals. At the Stock Exchange 7 per cent. gold was paid frequently, and even as high as $\frac{1}{2}$ commission overnight was exacted, in some instances, in addition to 7 per cent. interest; but lately Stock Exchange rates have not fairly represented the money market, as there are quite a number of persons in that institution who are not considered desirable borrowers, and have to pay well in order to make up their bank accounts.

Commercial paper has been in very good demand, and the tendency of the market is towards lower rates. For first-class names 9 to 12 per cent. is a fair quotation. We hear that considerable amounts have been placed at the former figure, and holders do not seem to be desirous of selling at a much higher one. Several failures have taken place during the week among the dry-goods jobbing-houses, but they have occasioned no alarm, as they were houses of moderate capital and doing business of too extended a nature for their means.

The foreign news is unimportant. Money is easy in London, and the Bank of England rate of discount remains standing at $4\frac{1}{2}$ per cent.

The weekly statement of the Clearing-House banks on Saturday was favorable; the total reserve shows a gain of \$2,175,500, against an increase of \$4,020,500 in liabilities—a net gain of \$1,005,125 in reserve as compared with the statement of the previous week. The surplus reserve now stands at \$11,245,125, against \$10,074,750 December 13—a gain of \$1,170,375.

The following is a comparison of the averages for the past two weeks:

	Dec. 13.	Dec. 20.	Differences.
Loans.....	\$354,540,600	\$257,191,900	Inc... \$97,348,700
Specie.....	22,819,500	21,987,900	Dec... 831,600
Legal tenders.....	42,060,600	44,567,700	Inc... 2,507,100
Deposits.....	190,054,200	194,116,500	Inc... 4,062,300
Circulation.....	27,167,400	27,125,400	Dec... 42,000

The stock market has been very unsettled during the latter part of the week, with prices lower on the entire speculative list as compared with the quotations of Monday. It is but natural that a reaction should take place after the rapid advance since the panic, and a great many have doubtless thought best to sell and realize their profits. It is stated that a leading operator has been a heavy seller of stock bought at "panic prices," and is just now interested in bringing about lower quotations in order to buy back. We see no reason why stocks should fall off much below the figures reached on Friday and Saturday, unless the present policy of the Treasury Department suddenly changes, or Congress should do what it is the least likely to do—make provision for the immediate stoppage of the issue of irredeemable paper money. The investment stocks have been strong; New Jersey Central sold at

102 for odd lots, Delaware and Lackawanna at 102 $\frac{3}{4}$, Harlem at 121, extra dividend of 4 per cent., Ft. Wayne at 90 $\frac{1}{2}$, and Michigan Central at 75 $\frac{1}{2}$.

Railroad earnings for the first and second weeks in December are encouraging to stockholders, showing an increase over those for a corresponding period in November.

The following shows the highest and lowest sales of the leading stocks at the Stock Exchange for the week ending December 20, 1873:

	Monday.	Tuesday.	Wed'day.	Thursday.	Friday.	Saturday.	Sales.
N. Y. C. & H. R.....	91 $\frac{1}{2}$ 96 $\frac{1}{2}$	95 $\frac{1}{2}$ 96 $\frac{1}{2}$	95 $\frac{1}{2}$ 96 $\frac{1}{2}$	95 $\frac{1}{2}$ 96 $\frac{1}{2}$	91 $\frac{1}{2}$ 95 $\frac{1}{2}$	95 $\frac{1}{2}$ 96 $\frac{1}{2}$	28,200
Lake Shore.....	76 77 $\frac{1}{2}$	76 $\frac{1}{2}$ 77 $\frac{1}{2}$	76 76 $\frac{1}{2}$	75 $\frac{1}{2}$ 76 $\frac{1}{2}$	73 $\frac{1}{2}$ 76 $\frac{1}{2}$	74 $\frac{1}{2}$ 75 $\frac{1}{2}$	104,700
Erie.....	45 45 $\frac{1}{2}$	45 45 $\frac{1}{2}$	44 $\frac{1}{2}$ 45	44 $\frac{1}{2}$ 45	44 $\frac{1}{2}$ 45	44 $\frac{1}{2}$ 45	8,000
Do. pfd.....	70 71 $\frac{1}{2}$	70 71 $\frac{1}{2}$	70 71 $\frac{1}{2}$	70 71 $\frac{1}{2}$	70 71 $\frac{1}{2}$	70 71 $\frac{1}{2}$	244,400
Union Pacific.....	30 $\frac{1}{2}$ 31 $\frac{1}{2}$	30 $\frac{1}{2}$ 31 $\frac{1}{2}$	30 $\frac{1}{2}$ 31 $\frac{1}{2}$	30 $\frac{1}{2}$ 31 $\frac{1}{2}$	29 30 $\frac{1}{2}$	29 $\frac{1}{2}$ 30 $\frac{1}{2}$	32,200
Chl. & N. W.....	56 57 $\frac{1}{2}$	55 $\frac{1}{2}$ 56 $\frac{1}{2}$	55 $\frac{1}{2}$ 56 $\frac{1}{2}$	55 55 $\frac{1}{2}$	53 55	51 55 $\frac{1}{2}$	3,600
Do. pfd.....	70 71 $\frac{1}{2}$	70 70 $\frac{1}{2}$	69 $\frac{1}{2}$ 69 $\frac{1}{2}$	69 69 $\frac{1}{2}$	67 $\frac{1}{2}$ 69	67 $\frac{1}{2}$ 69	400
N. J. Central.....	96 $\frac{1}{2}$ 100	96 $\frac{1}{2}$ 100	101 102	101 102	100 100	98 $\frac{1}{2}$ 100	6,000
Rock Island.....	98 $\frac{1}{2}$ 99 $\frac{1}{2}$	98 $\frac{1}{2}$ 98 $\frac{1}{2}$	98 $\frac{1}{2}$ 98 $\frac{1}{2}$	97 $\frac{1}{2}$ 98 $\frac{1}{2}$	97 97 $\frac{1}{2}$	97 $\frac{1}{2}$ 98 $\frac{1}{2}$	45,700
Mil. & St. Paul.....	40 $\frac{1}{2}$ 42	40 $\frac{1}{2}$ 41 $\frac{1}{2}$	40 $\frac{1}{2}$ 41 $\frac{1}{2}$	39 $\frac{1}{2}$ 40 $\frac{1}{2}$	39 $\frac{1}{2}$ 40	39 $\frac{1}{2}$ 40 $\frac{1}{2}$	4,000
Do. pfd.....	63 $\frac{1}{2}$ 64	63 $\frac{1}{2}$ 64	63 $\frac{1}{2}$ 64	63 $\frac{1}{2}$ 64	61 63 $\frac{1}{2}$	61 62 $\frac{1}{2}$	87,100
Wabash.....	52 $\frac{1}{2}$ 54	52 $\frac{1}{2}$ 54	51 $\frac{1}{2}$ 52 $\frac{1}{2}$	50 $\frac{1}{2}$ 51 $\frac{1}{2}$	48 $\frac{1}{2}$ 50 $\frac{1}{2}$	48 $\frac{1}{2}$ 51	5,000
D. L. & W.....	10 $\frac{1}{2}$ 101	101 102 $\frac{1}{2}$	102 $\frac{1}{2}$ 102 $\frac{1}{2}$	102 102 $\frac{1}{2}$	100 $\frac{1}{2}$ 101	100 $\frac{1}{2}$ 101 $\frac{1}{2}$	6,900
B. & H. & Erie.....	24 24	24 24	24 24	24 24	24 24	24 24	28,000
O. & M.....	30 $\frac{1}{2}$ 31 $\frac{1}{2}$	30 $\frac{1}{2}$ 31 $\frac{1}{2}$	30 $\frac{1}{2}$ 31 $\frac{1}{2}$	30 $\frac{1}{2}$ 31 $\frac{1}{2}$	28 $\frac{1}{2}$ 30 $\frac{1}{2}$	29 $\frac{1}{2}$ 30 $\frac{1}{2}$	61,400
C. C. & I. C.....	122 $\frac{1}{2}$ 122 $\frac{1}{2}$	122 122	122 122	122 122	122 122	122 122	2,800
Panama.....	95 97 $\frac{1}{2}$	95 97 $\frac{1}{2}$	96 $\frac{1}{2}$ 97 $\frac{1}{2}$	96 $\frac{1}{2}$ 97 $\frac{1}{2}$	95 97 $\frac{1}{2}$	95 96	27,800
W. U. Tel.....	73 $\frac{1}{2}$ 74 $\frac{1}{2}$	73 $\frac{1}{2}$ 75	73 $\frac{1}{2}$ 74 $\frac{1}{2}$	73 $\frac{1}{2}$ 74 $\frac{1}{2}$	70 $\frac{1}{2}$ 73 $\frac{1}{2}$	70 $\frac{1}{2}$ 73 $\frac{1}{2}$	21,400
Pacific Mail.....	39 $\frac{1}{2}$ 40 $\frac{1}{2}$	38 $\frac{1}{2}$ 39 $\frac{1}{2}$	38 $\frac{1}{2}$ 39	38 $\frac{1}{2}$ 39 $\frac{1}{2}$	36 38 $\frac{1}{2}$	36 $\frac{1}{2}$ 38	

Government bonds advanced early in the week in sympathy with the rise in the gold premium. Later in the week, with the culmination of the bull movement in gold, the price of bonds declined about 3 per cent. on the most active issues, the market on Saturday finally leaving off as follows:

U. S. 6s, 1881, r.....	114 $\frac{1}{2}$ @116
U. S. 6s, 1881, c.....	118 $\frac{1}{2}$ @119 $\frac{1}{2}$
U. S. 5-20 c, 1862.....	112 $\frac{1}{2}$ @113 $\frac{1}{2}$
U. S. 5-20 c, 1865.....	113 $\frac{1}{2}$ @114 $\frac{1}{2}$
U. S. 5-20 c, 1865, n.....	116 $\frac{1}{2}$ @116 $\frac{1}{2}$
U. S. 5-20 c, 1867.....	117 @117 $\frac{1}{2}$
U. S. 5-20 c, 1868.....	117 @117 $\frac{1}{2}$
U. S. 5s, 1881.....	111 @111 $\frac{1}{2}$
U. S. 6s, Cy.....	112 $\frac{1}{2}$ @112 $\frac{1}{2}$

The highest point reached during the week was 121 for 6s of 1881; 116 for 5-20s of 1862; 117 $\frac{1}{4}$ for '64s; 117 $\frac{1}{4}$ for '65s, old; 119 $\frac{1}{4}$ for '65s, new; 120 for '67s; and 113 $\frac{1}{4}$ for new 5s.

In State bonds a more active business has been doing. Tennessees have sold freely at 81 for both new and old issues. We notice auction sales of the following Southern State bonds: South Carolina 6s, act of March, 1869, at 10 $\frac{1}{8}$ to 10 $\frac{3}{8}$; South Carolina old 6s, dated 1855 and 1858, at 25 $\frac{3}{8}$; and North Carolina Special Tax bonds at 6 $\frac{1}{2}$ and 6 $\frac{3}{4}$.

Gold advanced on Tuesday to 112 $\frac{1}{2}$, at which figure the clique commenced selling out, when the price fell off to 111 $\frac{1}{2}$, and on Saturday to 110 $\frac{1}{2}$, closing at 110 $\frac{1}{2}$. It is said that the clique, which was instrumental in advancing the market, succeeded in selling out at and above 112.

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The Fire at Eatontown.

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Yours respectfully,

F. W. KEMP,
Assistant Foreman Oceanic, No. 1.*Fire in Orange.*

HASTINGS & BRUSH, 57 WALKER STREET,

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F. W. FARWELL, SECRETARY:

DEAR SIR: I take great pleasure in informing you that by the use of one of your Babcock Extinguishers, I saved my house in Orange, N. J., from destruction last evening. The fire was caused by the explosion of a German student's lamp, which was being filled carelessly while burning. While I was up-stairs after the Extinguisher, which I purchased of you in May, 1872, and which was filled and set away at that time, and had not been touched since, an attempt was made to quench the fire by the application of pails of water; but the result was only an increase of the flames. By the use of the machine the fire was put out in less than five seconds, and the damage done, aside from the total destruction of the lamp, was very small indeed.

As I think the size I have is too heavy for my wife to use in my absence, I wish you would send me one of your smallest size. You may freely refer to me any parties who are at all doubtful of its utility.

Respectfully yours,

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ERRATA—VOL. XVII.

Page 24, col. 1, line 6 from bottom. Omit
"and Miss Martineau."

Page 30, col. 1, line 25. For "Lord Gran-
ville" read "Lord Clarendon." Line 29,
omit "Charles Page Wood."

Page 71, col. 2, line 26. For "Steevens"
read "Steeve."

Page 96, col. 2, line 17 from bottom. For
"1871" read "1771."

Page 224, col. 2, line 8. For "ex-rebels"
read "ex-nobles."

Page 241, col. 2, line 19 from bottom. For
"Dorothy L." read "Dorothy Q."

Page 303, col. 2, line 12. For "Barraude"
read "Barraude."

Page 406, col. 1, line 3. For "Gulzot" read
"Guyot."

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